

THE LANGUAGE LEARNING NEEDS OF BEGINNER-LEVEL
INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS ENROLLED IN INTENSIVE ENGLISH
PROGRAMS AFFILIATED WITH AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER
EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY

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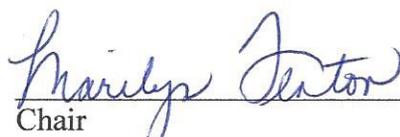
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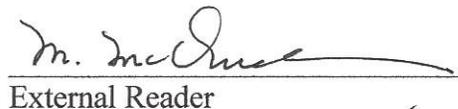
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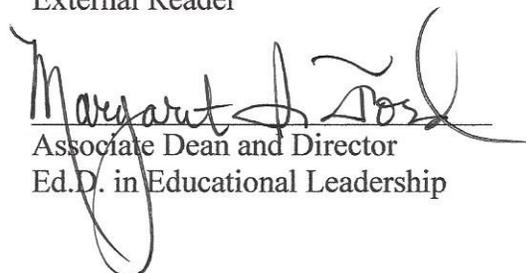
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Abstract

The qualitative case study followed a triangulation model design in which evidence was collected from multiple sources to develop a profile of the language learning needs of a population of beginner-level international students who were enrolled in an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located in New England. It is believed that a better understanding of beginner-level language learner needs can improve programmatic facilitation of course content for the growing population of international students in American higher education with low levels of English proficiency. Study participants included one group of 11 beginner-level international students and one group of 5 program faculty involved in facilitation of beginner-level courses. Using a sociocultural theoretical approach to second language learning as an analytical lens, the major analytic themes that emerged from the findings of the study include: beginner-level students' need for academic and social language; communicative language teaching's influence on beginner-level instruction; beginning-level instruction as a specialization; the need for cross-cultural sense making when perceptions of needs differ; and the institutional marginalization experienced by the faculty participants. Specific recommendations for Intensive English program administrators and faculty include conducting needs analyses on a regular basis; professional development geared toward beginner-level instruction; and working to increase integration between the program and host institution. Future research is recommended to employ quantitative needs analysis instruments; incorporate multiple case analysis; employ bilingual/bicultural fieldworkers; and incorporate other theoretical perspectives concerning second language learning.

Keywords: Intensive English programs, English for Academic Purposes, language learning needs, needs analysis, beginner-level students, international students

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For my step-father, Philip F. Gelman, in memoriam.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract.....	3
Acknowledgments.....	4
List of Tables.....	10
List of Figures.....	12
Chapter 1.....	13
Introduction.....	13
Rationale and Significance of Study.....	17
Theoretical/Conceptual Framework.....	19
Problem Statement.....	22
Purpose.....	23
Research Questions.....	24
Delimitations and Limitations.....	26
Definition of Key Terms.....	27
Summary.....	29
Chapter 2.....	32
Literature Review.....	32
Overview.....	32
Topics Reviewed.....	33
Second Language Learning.....	33

English for Academic Purposes	69
Intensive English Programs	81
Summary.....	105
Chapter 3.....	110
Methodology.....	110
Introduction and Overview	110
Rationale for Case Study Methodology.....	112
Research Sample.....	114
Overview of Information Needed	115
Overview of Research Design	117
Literature Review.....	120
IRB Approval	120
Data Collection Methods	120
Data Analysis and Synthesis	129
Ethical Considerations	130
Validation and Trustworthiness.....	133
Limitations	136
Summary.....	138
Chapter 4.....	141
Presentation and Analysis of Findings	141

Introduction.....	141
Context.....	142
Setting.....	142
Units of Analysis.....	144
Beginner-Level Students.....	144
Program Faculty.....	146
Researcher Reflection on Context	147
Presentation of Findings	150
Student Perception of Language Learning Needs.....	150
Faculty Perception of Language Learning Needs.....	172
Accommodation of Beginner-Level Language Learning Needs	198
Theoretical Proposition: Influence of Institutional Marginalization.....	216
Analysis, Interpretation, and Synthesis of Findings	223
Analytic Category Development.....	227
Summary.....	275
Chapter 5.....	278
Conclusions and Recommendations	278
Beginner-Level Students' Need for Academic and Social Language	278
The Influence of Communicative Language Teaching on Beginner-Level Instruction	279

Beginning-Level Instruction as a Specialization	280
The Need for Cross-Cultural Sense Making.....	280
Institutional Marginalization.....	281
Recommendations.....	282
Recommendations for Intensive English Program Administrators and Faculty.....	282
Recommendations for Further Research.....	283
Researcher Reflection	284
References.....	286
Appendix A	312
Appendix B.....	319
Appendix C	326
Appendix D.....	333
Appendix E	337
Appendix F.....	341
Appendix G.....	343
Appendix H.....	346
Appendix I	348
Appendix J	349
Appendix K.....	353

List of Tables

Table 1.1. <i>Cummins' (2001) Three Dimensions of Language Proficiency</i>	22
Table 3.1. <i>Overview of Information Needed</i>	115
Table 3.2. <i>Data Collection Matrix: Type of Information by Source</i>	122
Table 4.1. <i>Student Focus Group Participant Demographic Information</i>	145
Table 4.2. <i>Faculty Participant Demographic Information</i>	146
Table 4.3. <i>Summary of Findings of Student Perceptions of Language Learning Needs</i>	151
Table 4.4. <i>Student (n = 15) Responses to Part I of Needs Analysis Questionnaire Ranked by Mean</i>	153
Table 4.5. <i>Focus Group Participant Responses: Most Necessary Discrete Language Skills in Target Situation</i>	155
Table 4.6. <i>Student (n = 15) Responses to Part II of Needs Analysis Questionnaire Ranked by Mean</i>	164
Table 4.7. <i>Student (n = 15) Responses to Part III of Needs Analysis Questionnaire Ranked by Mean</i>	165
Table 4.8. <i>Summary of Findings of Faculty Perception of Language Learning Needs</i>	173
Table 4.9. <i>Faculty (n = 3) Responses to Part I of Needs Analysis Questionnaire Ranked by Mean</i>	179
Table 4.10. <i>Summary of Findings of Accommodation of Beginner-Level Language Learning Needs</i>	198
Table 4.11. <i>Key Teacher Dispositions for Beginner-Level Instruction as Identified by Faculty Participants</i>	200
Table 4.12. <i>Summary of Findings of Theoretical Proposition</i>	217

Table 4.13. <i>Relationship of Findings to Research Question 1 to Analytic Concepts and Grounding Theories or Studies</i>	229
Table 4.14. <i>Relationship of Findings to Research Question 2 to Analytic Concepts and Grounding Theories or Studies</i>	240
Table 4.15. <i>Relationship of Findings to Research Question 2 to Analytic Concepts and Grounding Theories or Studies (Analytic Category 3)</i>	253
Table 4.16. <i>Relationship of Findings to Research Question 3 to Analytic Concepts and Grounding Theories or Studies (Analytic Category 4)</i>	265

List of Figures

Figure 1.1. Theoretical Framework	21
Figure 3.1. Data Triangulation by Source and Method.....	121
Figure 4.1. Cultural Sensemaking Model	267

Chapter 1

Introduction

Since the 1940s, the number of international students arriving in the United States of America to pursue higher education has consistently increased (Bevis & Lucas, 2007; English Language Institute, 2006; Farrugia, Bhandari, & Chow, 2013; Institute of International Education, 2015b); yet, many of these students do not possess the prerequisite proficiency in English to successfully meet the demands of an academic program of study that solely uses English as the medium of instruction (Andrade, 2009; Jenkins, 1983; Kaplan, 1971; Mashiko, 1983; Szasz, 2010). In part due to the lucrative benefits that international students bring (Andrade, 2009; Friedenber, 2002), many institutions of higher education have deigned to provisionally admit those who possess a low level of proficiency in English on the proviso they complete an accelerated course of study in academic English, commonly known as an Intensive English program (Alexander, 2012; Barrett, 1982; Dantas-Whitney & Dimmitt, 2002; Dehghanpisheh, 1987; Kaplan, 1971; Orlando, 2016).

Concurrent with the sustained growth in international student enrollment that began in 2006 (Institute of International Education, 2015b), there has been evidence that a larger percentage of international students are arriving at American institutions of higher education with a lower level of English proficiency than was the case in the past. For example, in 2003 the percentage of international students enrolled in Intensive English programs was 7.5, whereas in 2013, that number had increased to 14.2 percent for a total of 125,973 international students enrolled in Intensive English programs during the 2013-14 academic year (Institute of International Education, 2004, 2014a, 2014b). The increasing numbers of international students with a beginner-level of English proficiency present on American campuses may be due, in part,

to changing demographic trends in international student enrollment that have seen more students from China or Saudi Arabia seek admittance into American institutions of higher education (Bevis & Lucas, 2007; Institute for International Education, 2014b, 2015; Powell, 2001). This observation is consistent with previous literature that has documented the generally lower English proficiency of Arab and Chinese students as compared to their international student peers (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Rigas, 2009; Wilhelm, 1992, 1995, 1997).

The fact that the number of beginner-level students enrolled in Intensive English programs continues to increase should disconcert those in higher education involved in English language development. Research has shown that progress through Intensive English programs is slow and inconsistent for most international students who possess a beginner level of English proficiency prior to entry (Wilhelm, 1992, 1995, 1997). Thinan Nakaprasit (2010) argued that this phenomenon was reflective of the fact that Intensive English programs “cater to the mean” (p. 209), which may suggest that the specific learning needs of beginner-level students are not being addressed adequately by these programs. Similarly, Kim Hughes Wilhelm (1995), having found that consistent progress through an Intensive English program was correlated with an individual possessing an intermediate level of English proficiency prior to program entry, argued that “the needs of less proficient learners may be better served by [a] different program or by courses which focus less on learning English for academic purposes” (p. 15). Wilhelm (1995) suggested that institutions that accept international students identify learner characteristics prior to entry so that program curriculum and instructional objectives can be better calibrated to the needs of the population of learners that they have. Yet, despite the importance of assessment and analysis of learning needs in second language instruction (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; M. Long, 2005; Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Nunan, 1998), Nakaprasit (2010) observed that there is currently no

clear definition of language learning needs. Nevertheless, one definition that seems to have some currency in the literature was proposed by Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters (1987), who argued that language learning needs were “what the learner needs to do in order to learn” (p. 54), as well as proposing a framework in which language learning needs could be analyzed.

There is also evidence that many Intensive English program students possess negative affect toward their participation in the program and toward the study of academic English (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Broomhead, 2013; Friedenberg, 2002, 2009; Y. Long, 2013; Wilhelm, 1995; Wu, 2013). One reason for this that can be identified from both previous journalistic investigation into the experiences of Intensive English program students (Wu, 2013) and the scholarly literature on the topic is the average amount of time students spend in these programs (Friedenberg, 2002, 2009; Y. Long, 2013). Using data gleaned from the Institute for International Education’s *Open Doors* dataset, Christine Farrugia, Rajika Bhandari, and Patricia Chow (2013) calculated that, during the 2012-2013 academic year, the average length of stay in an Intensive English program was 14 student-weeks; however, they acknowledged that time spent in an Intensive English program varied significantly when looking at students’ countries of origin. Previous to the publication of the 2013 edition of the annual *Open Doors* report, William W. Powell (2001) had criticized the *Open Doors* data collection methodology, and Powell (2001), Joan E. Friedenberg (2002), and Maureen Snow Andrade (2009) have each suggested that not only are the numbers of students enrolled in Intensive English programs much greater than the *Open Doors* data suggest, but that the average length of enrollment in such programs is actually a year or longer. Regardless of the actual average length of enrollment, many Intensive English program students have expressed frustration at the amount of time a putatively Intensive program requires to be spent before entry is allowed into their intended academic program of

study (Friedenberg, 2002; Wu, 2012). It is also possible that the frustration expressed by many Intensive English program students may be, as several researchers have argued, an indication of a mismatch between students' perception of their language learning needs and their hosting institution's perception of them, as expressed through programmatic design and facilitation, that might serve to inhibit the progress of these students (Beetham, 1997; Broomhead, 2013; Friedenberg, 2002, 2009; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Nakaprasit, 2010; Wilhelm, 1995).

Additionally, a long strand of empirical research into Intensive English programs in higher education has revealed that Anglophone linguistic chauvinism within American academia is expressed through a deficit model view of English language acquisition by non-native speakers (Cummins, 2001; Friedenberg, 2002; Peregoy & Boyle, 2000; Rosenkjar, 2002). This has the effect of contributing to the continued marginalization of those faculty and administrators involved in the teaching of English as a second language (TESOL) (Case, 1998; Jenks & Kennell, 2012; Lin et al., 2004; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Stanley, 1994; Szasz, 2010), as well as the international students who participate in these programs (Friedenberg, 2002, 2009; Giroir, 2013; Vandrick, 1995, 1997; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994). An example of how this marginalization manifests itself can be found within the widespread practice among American institutions of offering credit hours to domestic students participating in introductory foreign language courses, yet not offering credit hours to international students enrolled in Intensive English program courses (Brooks, 2002; Friedenberg, 2002; Staczek & Carkin, 1984; Thompson, 2013). This practice occurs despite the fact that due to a focus on academic use, the language instruction within the courses of an Intensive English program is, by definition, more intellectually challenging and academically rigorous than introductory foreign language courses, which mainly focus on the acquisition of interpersonal communication skills (Cummins, 2001;

Rosenkjar, 2002). Several researchers have pointed to the belief held by many higher education administrators that Intensive English or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs are remedial, and thus, ancillary to their institutions' primary mission (Rosenkjar, 2002; Staczek & Carkin, 1984; Thompson, 2013). Commenting on the powerful effect Anglophone linguistic chauvinism has had upon English language development in higher education, John Swales (1990) wrote, "[i]f there is one factor that has debilitated academic English programs more than any other around the world, it has been the concept of *remediation* – that we have nothing to teach but that which should have been learnt before" (p. 2). With this in mind, there exists the possibility that marginalization could be a factor in mismatch between the perceptions of language learning needs held by beginner-level international students and the willingness of administrators and faculty of Intensive English programs to accommodate them; one possible reason for this is that the needs of beginner-level students might represent a threat to the perception of the program's seriousness and rigor by other academic units on campus (Case, 1998).

Rationale and Significance of Study

This study sought to address the gaps in research into language learning needs in the Intensive English program context (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Nakaprasit, 2010), and the effectiveness of EAP (Gillett, 2011) programs in general, that have been identified by previous researchers. After a comprehensive review of the literature, the researcher recognized there had been no previous attempts to identify and describe the specific language learning needs of this population, despite the increasing number of international students in Intensive English programs with low levels of English language proficiency. As the EAP approach, as part of the larger English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach, centers on the specific needs of the student (Hutchinson & Waters,

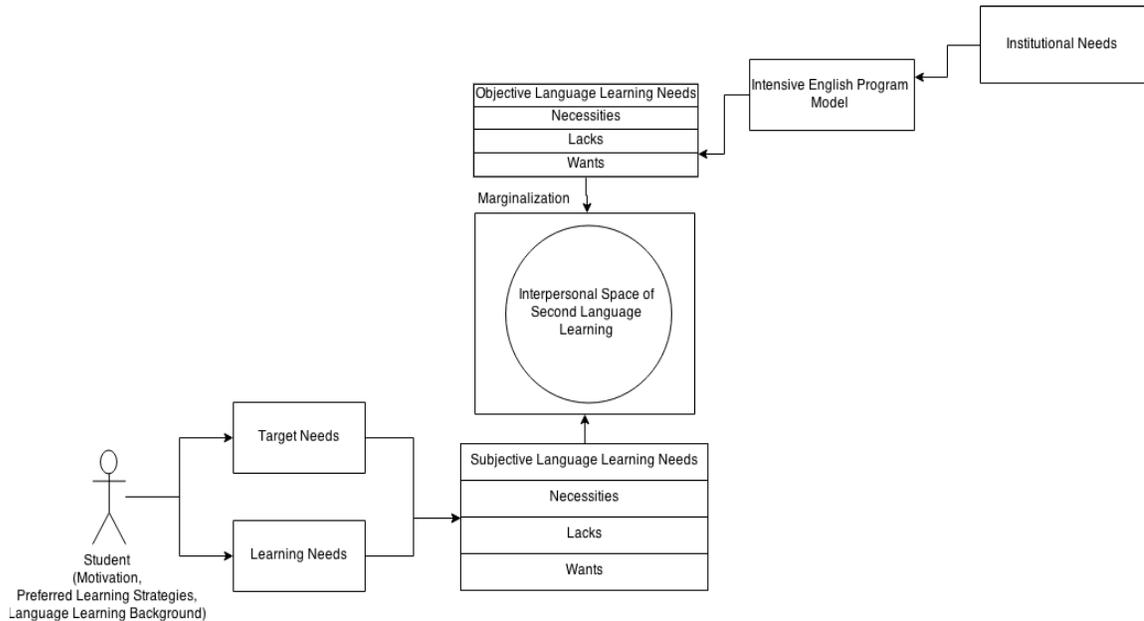
1987; Jordan, 1997; Munby, 1978), needs analyses of beginner-level international students in American higher education are a necessary component of the process of improving the learning that occurs in such programs. Furthermore, the researcher argues that the phenomenon of the large amount of negative affect expressed by Intensive English program students towards these programs (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Broomhead, 2013; Friedenber, 2002, 2009; Y. Long, 2013; Wilhelm, 1995; Wu, 2013) could be better understood through an empirical investigation of the language learning needs of beginner-level Intensive English program students, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested that a possible cause for negative student affect could be disparity between student perception of language learning needs and instructor perception of them. If it is the case that such disparity exists, considering the increased revenue stream that institutions of higher education currently enjoy from increased Intensive English program enrollment (Andrade, 2009; Friedenber, 2002) of beginner-level students, it can be argued that such institutions have an ethical and legal obligation (*e.g.*, Lau v. Nichols, 1974) to better meet these students' language learning needs. Furthermore, considering the importance motivation plays in the development of second language proficiency (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 2011; Yashima, 2002), the identification of amotivating and demotivating factors (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Hu, 2011) within Intensive English programs would be a necessary step in improving such programs. It is believed that the results of the study can assist Intensive English program directors in increasing the effectiveness of the teaching and learning that occurs within their programs, as well as enabling international student affairs officers to better advise prospective international students in terms of their English language development.

Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

Having recognized that there is currently no definitive conceptualization of language learning needs (Nakaprasit, 2010), the framework of the study used the definition proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) as a foundation upon which international students' language learning needs were conceptualized. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argued that needs analysis should consist of analysis of both *target needs* (i.e., what knowledge and skills are required to successfully communicate in a particular situation) and *learning needs* (i.e., what is required for students to learn that knowledge and skill in a particular learning situation). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) further classified needs into *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants*; according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), necessities are what is needed either to perform in a target situation or to learn the language, lacks are what necessities the students currently do not possess, and wants are the desires of the student in the course concerning what they wish to learn and how. Needs, as perceived by learners, were termed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) as *subjective*; whereas, needs as perceived by course designers or instructors were termed as *objective*. As students' and instructors' understanding of language learning needs intersects in the classroom, Cummins' (2001) concept of *interpersonal space* was used to understand how both knowledge is generated and identities are negotiated in the classroom through the interactions between second language students and their instructors. Also incorporated into this framework is the understanding of how Intensive English programs organize themselves to meet student and institutional needs, and possibly deal with disparities, that can be found in the work of Elaine Dehghanpisheh (1987), who argued that American university-affiliated Intensive English programs tended to fall into one of four models that are characterized by their admissions requirements, course structure, and coordination with first-year student English courses. Dehghanpisheh (1987) argued that the

administrative model of an Intensive English program was reflective of more than just a choice of organizational format. Similar to choices in classroom methodology, administrative policy choices have the potential to influence the ability of an Intensive English program student to attain a successful outcome for the acquisition of academic English. As programmatic structure was previously identified by Nakaprasit (2010) as a primary factor that prevented the Intensive English program examined in her study from meeting the language learning needs of its students, the researcher believes that through employing Dehgahnpisheh's (1987) typology connections between programmatic structure and objective learning needs can be identified. Finally, as this study investigated the effect marginalization has upon the intersection of objective and subjective language learning needs, the understanding of marginalization within the context of higher education TESOL drew upon the work of Rod Ellis Case (1998), who argued that reference group theory is "an appropriate theoretical framework" (p. 4) in which to understand the liminal place the Intensive English program occupies as an academic unit within many American institutions of higher education, previously documented by Friedenber, (2002, 2009), Shannon Giroir, (2013), Frederic L. Jenks and Patrick Kennell (2012), Angel Lin et al., (2004), John Staczek and Susan Carkin (1985), Karen Stanley (1994), Stephanie Vandrick, Johnnie Johnson Hafernik, and Dorothy S. Messerschmitt (1994), and Vandrick (1995, 1997). The theoretical framework for how language learning needs are understood in the study is depicted graphically in Figure 1.

Figure 1.1 Theoretical Framework



Furthermore, the understanding of language proficiency in the study was informed by Cummins' (2001) Three Dimensions of Language Proficiency framework. Within this framework, language proficiency is thought to consist of three domains: *conversational fluency*, *discrete language skills*, and *academic language proficiency* (Cummins, 2001). According to Cummins (2001), conversational fluency is the ability to converse during face-to-face interaction with others on familiar topics that requires basic knowledge of high frequency vocabulary items, communicative grammatical constructions, and paralinguistics; discrete language skills are the knowledge of phonology, grammar, and literacy that is acquired by through direct instruction; and academic language proficiency represents knowledge of those specialized vocabulary and grammatical constructions found in the academic register of a language or particular discipline of study. Table 1.1. provides a description of the knowledge and skills that make up each domain.

Table 1.1

Cummins' (2001) Three Dimensions of Language Proficiency

Dimension	Knowledge and Skills
Conversational Fluency	High frequency vocabulary Communicative grammatical constructions Understanding of paralinguistic cues (e.g., gestures, facial expressions, intonation, prosody, etc.),
Discrete Language Skills	Phonology Grammar Literacy
Academic Language Proficiency	Greek and Latin root words and affixes (for English) Complex syntactical structures (e.g., passive voice, nominalization, etc.) Specialized vocabulary belonging to a particular academic discipline (e.g., “methylation,” “problematize,” “disaggregate,” etc.)

Problem Statement

Evidence gleaned from prior empirical research suggests that the population of international students enrolled in Intensive English programs now includes an unprecedented number of individuals who possess a low level of proficiency in English (Farrugia, Bhandari, & Chow, 2013; Institute of International Education, 2014a, 2014b; Powell, 2001). Additionally, research suggests that many Intensive English programs might not be accommodating the language learning needs of these students adequately (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Nakaprasit, 2010; Wilhelm, 1992, 1995, 1997). A possible reason Intensive English programs might not adequately accommodate the learning needs of beginner-level students may be due to these programs' marginalized status within academia (Case, 1998; Staczek & Carkin, 1984; Stanley, 1994). Wilhelm (1992, 1995, 1997) has shown that students who enter Intensive English programs with a low level of proficiency in English tend to progress through these programs inconsistently, which may be a factor in the overall negative affect Intensive English program students have reported concerning their participation in these programs. (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Broomhead, 2013;

Friedenberg, 2002; Y. Long, 2013; Nakaprasit, 2010; Wu, 2012). It is possible that these students' acquisition of English is inhibited by their negative affect (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Hu, 2011; Krashen, 2009), leading to a vicious cycle of amotivation/demotivation, slow progress, and frustration. While previous studies have explored both the language learning motivations (Aloiau, 2001; Komiyama, 2009; Weger-Guntharp, 2008; Weger, 2013; Windish, 1993) and language learning needs (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Nakaprasit, 2010) of international students enrolled in Intensive English programs as a whole, prior to this study there had been no empirical inquiry into the specific learning needs of those students possessing a beginner-level of English proficiency upon entry into these programs.

Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative case study (Creswell, 2013; Duff, 2008; Yin, 2014) was to contribute to a better understanding of the language learning needs of beginner-level international students enrolled in university-affiliated Intensive English programs by developing a profile of their needs through analysis of their target, present, and learning situations (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Rahman, 2012; Robinson, 1991). The analysis explored students' attitudes and motivations toward learning academic English, their perception of what is necessary to learn academic English, their perception of what language learning necessities they currently lack, and what they want to learn. In addition, course facilitators' perceptions of student language learning needs, in terms of necessities, lacks, and wants, were also explored. The results of the analysis were used to test the theoretical proposition that the marginalized status of Intensive English programs as academic units on campus might inhibit the willingness of these programs to fully accommodate the language learning needs, in terms of necessities, lacks, and wants, of beginner-level students. It is believed that the findings of the study can

assist Intensive English program directors in improving the facilitation of their programs to the increasing population of beginner-level international students, as well as provide deeper insight to the facilitation of EAP in the context of higher education in the United States of America.

Research Questions

1. What are the academic English language learning needs as perceived by beginner-level international students enrolled in an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States?
 - a. What information do beginner-level students believe is necessary to know in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?
 - b. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students believe are necessary in their current learning situation in order for them to successfully learn academic English?
 - c. What necessary information do beginner-level students believe they lack in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?
 - d. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students believe are lacking in their current learning situation?
 - e. What information do beginner-level students want to learn about English?
 - f. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students want in their current learning situation?
2. What are the academic English language learning needs of beginner-level students as perceived by the instructors and administrators of an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States?

- a. What information do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe is necessary to know in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?
 - b. What conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe are necessary in an Intensive English program in order for beginner-level students to learn academic English?
 - c. What necessary information do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students lack in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?
 - d. What language learning conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students lack in their current learning situation?
 - e. What do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students want to learn about English?
 - f. What language learning conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students want in an Intensive English program?
3. In what ways can Intensive English programs affiliated with institutions of higher education located within the United States accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level international students?
- a. Are there significant differences in the language learning needs between or among individual students who share the same country of origin or native language group?
 - b. Are there significant differences in the language learning needs between individual students who are from different countries of origin or native language group?

4. In what ways, if any, does the marginalization of Intensive English program faculty and administration in academia influence the willingness of Intensive English programs to fully accommodate beginner-level international students' language learning needs?

Delimitations and Limitations

A delimitation of the study was that it was geographically limited to a site located in New England. This delimitation existed due to the lack of resources available to the researcher that would enable long-distance travel. While the population of Intensive English program students, by country of origin, are generally distributed equally throughout the United States (Farrugia, Bhandari, & Chow, 2013), it is acknowledged that the transferability (Creswell, 2013; Trochim, 2006) of the study might suffer from any potential regional differences in the popularity of certain program administrative models, instructional methodologies, etc..

A major limitation of the study is that it was primarily conducted through the medium of English, yet it involved participants whose first language is not English. In order to account for data lost in translation, a researcher in a multilingual setting needs to possess an understanding of the culture(s) of the participants and develop strategies that are sensitive to context in which the communication takes place (Filep, 2009). As an applied linguist, language educator, and student of several languages (of which varying levels of proficiency have been achieved), this researcher believes he possessed the proper training, knowledge, and awareness to have developed and employed appropriate strategies to lessen the potential for distortion when data was collected from those participants who communicated not in their native language. One such strategy that was employed was to use data gleaned from a researcher-constructed questionnaire on language learning needs that was administered in the participants' home languages to inform the collection and analysis of data collected from a focus group of international students. However, this same

training, knowledge, and awareness also informs this researcher's belief that such distortion can never be fully eliminated.

Another limitation was that at the time of the study, students from Saudi Arabia, China, and Japan account 53.5% of all Intensive English program students in the United States; there are few international students from Sub-Saharan Africa, Western Europe, or Oceania currently enrolled in Intensive English programs (Institute of International Education, 2014b). While the population present at the research site was reflective of the general demographics of Intensive English programs in the United States; the findings of the study may not be transferable (Creswell, 2013; Trochim, 2006) to students from regions outside Asia or the Middle East.

Definition of Key Terms

Academic English: A sociolinguistic register of English used in educational settings that “is characterized by complex, symbolic, metaphoric, and technical vocabulary that includes specialized uses of common words in addition to a vast and deep knowledge of low-frequency vocabulary” (Crossman & Pinchbeck, 2012, p. 233).

Applied Linguistics: An academic discipline that applies knowledge gleaned from the study of language to assist in solving real-world problems (Cook, 2003).

Beginner-Level English Proficiency: A level of proficiency in English that corresponds to a TOEFL-ITP score of lower than 460 (Educational Testing Service, 2015), which is equivalent to reference levels A1 and A2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001).

Beginner-Level Student: An international student who enters an Intensive English program with a less than intermediate level of competence in English as measured by a standardized test of English language proficiency (Barrett, 1982, Kaplan, 1971; Wilhelm, 1995).

English for Academic Purposes (EAP): A subset of the English for Special Purposes approach that is geared towards students who need to use English in academic settings, usually within higher education (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Gillet, 2011).

English for Special Purposes (ESP): A language learning approach in which choices in course content and teaching methodology are based on the specific needs of the learner by taking in account why the learner needs to use English (Gillet, 2011; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Intensive English Program: Programs in which the student is enrolled in full-time English classes (at least 18 to 20 hours a week) that are usually not for university credit, which are designed to develop the academic English skills of students whose first language is not English in preparation for coursework at an English-speaking institution of higher learning at either the undergraduate or graduate level (Bennett, 1996; Jenkins, 1983; Kaplan, 1971; Staczek & Carkin, 1984; Szasz, 2010; Thompson, 2013).

International Students: Students who have been issued a temporary, non-immigrant student visa so that they may be enrolled in a program of study at an institution of higher learning located outside the borders of their country of citizenship, and who are also non-native speakers of the language of their host country (Andrade, 2006; Y. Long, 2013).

Language Learning Background: Variables that are thought to be important factors in second language learning that include general demographic information, formal language learning, and in class and extracurricular exposure to the target language (Gradman & Hanania, 1991; Wilhelm, 1992).

Language Learning Strategy: Metacognitive strategies employed by language students to direct, facilitate, and monitor their acquisition and learning of the target language (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Vann & Abraham, 1990).

Learning Needs: The prerequisite conditions necessary in order for learning to occur that can be determined from the context in which the learning takes place as well as the learner's knowledge, skills, preferred language learning strategies and motivation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Learning Situation Analysis (LSA): A type of needs analysis that determines the learning needs of a particular population of students (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

Motivation: An aspect of human psychology that is responsible for an individual's choice to undertake a particular activity, as well as the amount of persistence and effort directed toward that activity (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010).

Needs Analysis: The empirical investigation of a population of second language learners in order to identify the tasks and situations in which they shall use the second language, their current strengths and weaknesses in the second language, and affective variables might influence the teaching and learning of the second language (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; M. Long, 2005).

Present Situation Analysis (PSA): A type of needs analysis that identifies the linguistic knowledge and skills already known by a particular population of students so that language instruction can be focused on what the students have not learned yet (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

Target Needs: The linguistic knowledge and skill necessary to successfully communicate in the context of a particular situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997).

Target Situation Analysis (TSA): A type of needs analysis that determines the target needs of a particular population of students (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

Summary

As a consequence of the continued globalization of higher education, ever increasing numbers of international students have found their way on to American campuses (Institute for

International Education, 2014a). While almost every international student needs some amount of English language development (Mashiko, 1983), the findings of current empirical research into the topic suggest the number of international students needing Intensive English instruction has increased (Institute for International Education, 2004, 2014a, 2014b). Concurrent with this rise have been reports of student frustration and resentment towards their participation in Intensive English programs (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Broomhead, 2013; Friedenberg, 2002, 2009; Y. Long, 2013; Wilhelm, 1995; Wu, 2013), as well as the lack of consistent progress shown by most beginner-level students enrolled in these programs (Wilhelm, 1995). These suggest that such programs might not adequately accommodate the language learning needs of this population. Furthermore, the long-standing marginalization of Intensive English programs on American campuses (Case, 1998; Dantas-Whitney & Dimmitt, 2002; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Stanley, 1994; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994) may serve to inhibit these programs in taking necessary actions to fully accommodate the needs of beginner-level students as it might justify the perception by some outsiders that such programs are remedial, ancillary, and lacking in academic rigor and worth. This case study employed qualitative data collection and analysis methods to conduct a comprehensive needs analysis of beginner-level students enrolled in an Intensive English program, so that the perception of language learning needs by both students and course facilitators can be better described. The study used the identification of the needs of this population of students as a starting point to investigate how marginalization might influence the willingness of administrators and faculty of Intensive English programs to meet the needs of the low-English proficient. It is believed that the findings of the study can be used by Intensive English program directors to improve the facilitation of their programs for the beginner-level

students, as well as contributing to a better understanding of English language development for international students in postsecondary settings.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Overview

The purpose of this study is two-fold. The first purpose is to investigate, through a needs analysis, the language learning needs of international students with a beginner-level of English language proficiency who are enrolled in an Intensive English program that is affiliated with an American institution of higher education. More specifically, the study analyzes the *target needs* and *learning needs* (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) of this population so that a more comprehensive profile of their language learning needs can be constructed. The information gleaned from this inquiry was then applied to the study's second purpose, which is to explore the theoretical proposition that the marginalization of Intensive English programs on American campuses (Case, 1998; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Stanley, 1994; Szasz, 2010; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994) might inhibit the willingness of such programs to fully accommodate the needs of international students enrolled in beginner-level Intensive English courses.

Before initiating this study, it was deemed necessary by the researcher to engage in a critical review of the scholarly literature in which language learning needs or Intensive English programs were the primary topic of inquiry. As such, this literature review details the knowledge that has been gleaned from empirical study of the function of Intensive English programs as academic units within institutions of higher learning; therefore, literature concerning non-university affiliated Intensive English programs was not included in this review. After a broad investigation of the topic, the researcher focused on reviewing three major topics of inquiry found within the literature: (a) Second Language Learning, (b) English for Academic Purposes, and (c) Intensive English Programs.

Multiple sources of information were used for this review; including peer-reviewed articles from scholarly journals, books, dissertations, monographs, working papers and reports, published conference proceedings, and articles published on academic websites. To access these sources the researcher conducted a search through the electronic card catalog of his institution's library, as well as, using the SUMMONS internet search engine to simultaneously search several academic databases; including, Education Full Text, ERIC, JSTOR, Proquest, and SAGE. The search results were then examined to determine if the items met the purpose of this literature review according to the following criteria: (a) the study questions and/or hypotheses of the study explicitly addressed language learning needs and/or Intensive English programs; (b) the study was conducted within the empirical research tradition, employing qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-methods methodology. The main ideas and themes found in the literature were used to shape the theoretical framework within which the inquiry of the proposed study shall be conducted.

Topics Reviewed

Second Language Learning

How people learn to speak a second language after childhood is still an open question for linguists and scholars in related fields; indeed, adult second language learning is a topic of research that engenders fierce debate between researchers as to its actual mechanisms, which, in turn, has provided the field with a robust research agenda (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). After moving away from behaviorism, from the 1950s onwards, current theories are usually situated in one of six major approaches, each with its own view as to what language is, how language is learned (or *acquired*), and the specific characteristics that define a language learner (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). According to Rosamond Mitchell, Florence Myles, and

Emma Marsden (2013), current major schools of thought represented in the field include *Universal Grammar*, *cognitivism*, *interactionism*, *functionalism*, *sociocultural theory*, and *sociolinguistics*. While there are major disagreements within these six theoretical approaches (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013), it must be noted that the boundaries between the various theoretical approaches are not impermeable with certain theories adopting concepts from more than one approach; for example, Stephen D. Krashen's (2002, 2009) Monitor Model is usually identified as a founding theory of the interactionist approach, yet it incorporates the concepts from the universal grammar approach with its proposition of the existence of a *language acquisition device*. In this literature review, for those approaches or theories in which language is seen as derived from an in-born, hard-wired capacity in the brain, the term *second language acquisition* (SLA) (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013); is used whereas, for other approaches or theories the term *second language learning* (SLL) (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013) is used.

Universal Grammar

The Universal Grammar theoretical approach to SLA research was developed from the work of Noam Chomsky and other researchers in the field of generative linguistics starting in the 1950s; Universal Grammar theory is primarily concerned with what constitutes linguistic knowledge in a language learner's mind (V. Cook, 1985; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). According to linguists working in the generativist approach, all human languages share a common set of fundamental principles and constraints, and are derived from an innate, genetically determined language faculty; as such, assuming normal conditions, children will effortlessly acquire a native language (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). The idea that human beings possess an inborn neuro-cognitive system to acquire language was termed by Chomsky as *Universal Grammar* (V. Cook, 1985; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). From the Universal

Grammar perspective, human languages share a mental framework of universal morphosyntactic principles, as well as a set of parameters that can differ between individual languages; as such, first language acquisition is seen as the setting of these parameters, and second language acquisition can be seen as the resetting of these parameters (V. Cook, 1985; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). However, the question of whether or not the representation of a second language in the mind is constrained by universal grammar or not is still considered open by researchers (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Additionally, many researchers working within this approach have been interested in the well-known phenomenon that most second language learners do not acquire native-like ability; one hypothesis is that a critical period exists in which after it passes, second language learners are no longer able to access universal grammar to reset all their neurofunctional parameters (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013).

Cognitivism

Standing in opposition to the Universal Grammar approach, the cognitivist approach consists of a panoply of theories that assert SLL can be explained without hypothesizing the existence of a unique language faculty in the human brain, as what is known of general cognitive mechanisms is sufficient to explain the phenomenon of SLL (Ellis, 2006; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Due to the sheer amount of theories that lie within the cognitivist approach, only those theories that bear some relevance to the inquiry of this study were included in this section of the literature review. While all cognitivist theories agree that there is no need to define an innate linguistic module in the brain in order to explain language learning and use, cognitivist theorists disagree on the exact nature of the cognitive mechanisms that drive language learning; most broadly, cognitivist theories of second language learning can be divided into those which propose that SLL is driven by general, implicit mechanisms that do not require conscious effort

and awareness, and those theories that propose SLL requires the use of conscious effort and awareness (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Emergentism, constructionism, and processing theory are among some of the theoretical frameworks that make up the first group (Bates & MacWhinney, 1982; Ellis, 2006; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; O'Grady, Lee, & Kwak, 2009); whereas, the second group includes such theories as Richard W. Schmidt's (1990) Information Processing Model, as well as those theories which argue for the importance of mechanisms of *working memory* in SLL. Additionally, a major cognitivist SLL theory, the Efficiency-Driven Processor (O'Grady, 2005), straddles both groups as William O'Grady (2005) argued both *declarative knowledge* (*i.e.*, knowledge that must be explicitly gained through conscious awareness) and *procedural knowledge* (*i.e.*, knowledge that can be acquired implicitly without conscious awareness through the brain's extraction of meaning from outside stimuli) are used in the process of SLL.

Schmidt's Information Processing Model

Situating his argument within cognitivist framework concerned with the role of awareness and memory in SLL, Richard W. Schmidt (1990) proposed that the perception certain language features are acquired unconsciously results from ignorance of the fact that consciousness operates on various levels. Therefore, Schmidt (1990) argued that what others identify as unconscious acquisition is, in actuality, a low-level conscious process of *noticing*. For Schmidt (1990), the process of second language learning is that *intake* results from the noticing of the linguistic features of second language input. Schmidt acknowledged that language learning without intent is possible; however, he believed such a distinction is better described as *implicit* versus *explicit* learning as opposed to consciousness or unconscious learning (as cited in Jin, 2011; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). According to Schmidt

(1990), the ramifications of this upon adult second language instruction are that attention to language form is of critical importance to the process of second language learning, and that individual differences in language learning and achievement may be related to differences in attention and awareness of the linguistic features within second language input. Thus, within Schmidt's (1990) model, achievement in adult language learning is a consequence of conscious effort applied to the noticing of language forms until such a time that the comprehension and production of the form is automatic.

Working Memory

Researchers in SLL have noticed that some learners are able to focus their attention when engaged in language learning; as such, many researchers have shown interest in what is known as *working memory* (WM), which refers to the cognitive system involved in the short-term holding, manipulation, and processing of information relevant to a particular task (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). According to Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013) a consensus exists in SLL research that WM is used for language comprehension, and, as comprehension is a necessity for language learning, researchers argue that WM probably plays a critical role in both first and second language learning. One of the most influential models of WM was first proposed by Alan Baddeley and Graham Hitch in 1974; according to Baddeley and Hitch, WM is composed of three components: the *phonological loop* that stores audio-linguistic information, the *visuospatial sketchpad* that stores visual and spatial information, and a *central executive* that controls and regulates the other two components (as cited in Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). In reviewing the literature on the role of WM in SLL, Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013) observed that the research suggests that measures of WM and overall second language proficiency are not strongly correlated, which may evidence that WM is limited to influencing

the proficiency of discrete language skills; indeed, research has found strong correlations between higher WM capacity and second language reading comprehension and vocabulary learning (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Furthermore, there is some evidence that WM plays a role in inhibiting *negative transference* (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001) from the first language that interferes with the processing of the second language; for example, the work of Ellen Bialystok (*e.g.*, Bialystok, Craik, Klein, & Viswanathan, 2004; Bialystok, Craik, & Luk, 2009), has shown that bilinguals are extremely skilled in inhibiting negative transference, as well as showing several other advantages in controlled processing tasks. The question of whether or not WM is fixed or if WM capacity can be increased through training remains an open one with current research exploring this issue (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013).

Interactionism

The interactionist research approach primarily concerns itself with how language acquisition is driven through linguistic input, particularly through second language interaction in both naturalistic and formal (*i.e.*, classroom) settings (Krashen, 2002, 2009; Long, 1981, 1996; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). According to Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden (2013), three major theories are often identified with the interactionist approach: Krashen's Monitor Model (2002, 2009), Michael H. Long's (1981) Interaction Hypothesis, and Merrill Swain's (1993) Output Hypothesis. However, while Swain's (1993) Output Hypothesis originated from within the interactionist research tradition as a reaction to the theories espoused Krashen (2002, 2009) and Long (1981), Swain's arguments have evolved to encompass concepts from sociocultural theory, and are detailed in the section of the literature review concerned with the sociocultural approach to SLL. Concerning the interactionist approach's view of the nature of language, while Krashen's (2002, 2009) Monitor Model and the first iteration of Long's (1981) Interaction

Hypothesis, like the Universal Grammar approach, accepted the view of language held by generative linguistics, Long (1996) revised his theory to adopt a cognitivist view of language; since then, interactionist theories have incorporated many concepts from the cognitivist approach in their view of the nature of language learning, including noticing and working memory (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). As far as to how the interactionist approach views the language learner, Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013) argued that the primary learner characteristics important to this approach are psycholinguistic variables, such as age, proficiency level, and working memory capacity; likewise, Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013) noted that the interactionist theoretical approach, unlike the sociocultural or sociolinguistics approaches, does not concern itself with concepts like learner identity, community, or the sociolinguistic and cultural factors at play in language learning practices. Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013) concluded that the interactionist research agenda has been successful in delineating those aspects of second language interaction that drive second language learning and in identifying the pedagogical implications that are suggested by these findings.

Krashen's Monitor Model

It can be argued that Krashen's (2002, 2009) Monitor Model has been one of the most influential theories of SLA on current second language pedagogy (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). Krashen (2002, 2009) proposed five hypotheses concerning SLA; the first, and according to Krashen (2009) "perhaps the most fundamental of all the hypotheses" (p. 10), was termed the *acquisition-learning distinction hypothesis*. The acquisition-learning distinction hypothesis posited that adults develop competence in a second language in two discrete ways; the first way was labeled by Krashen (2002, 2009) as *acquisition*, which Krashen (2009) argued was "a process similar, if not identical to the way children develop ability

in their first language” (p. 10). According to Krashen (2009), the process of language acquisition is a subconscious one, in which language learners acquire competence in a language through engaging in natural and meaningful interaction with native speakers via the medium of the target language. Krashen (2009) contrasted language acquisition with *language learning*, which he defined as the “conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them” (p. 10). In other words, language learning is what occurs in the environment of a foreign language classroom in which the rules of a language’s morphology and syntax are formally taught (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001; Krashen, 2009). Krashen asserted that language learning could not be converted to language acquisition, and that it is only those language forms which were acquired that are available to a speaker when engaged in natural and fluent communication (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). However, the Monitor Model (Krashen, 2002, 2009) didn’t suggest that there is no utility to language learning. Indeed, language learning is the basis of Krashen’s (2002) second hypothesis, which suggested that the formal study of a language’s grammatical rules allows language students to develop an internal *monitor* that examines the student’s linguistic output as part of a process of self-correction that supports the process of language acquisition; as such, this hypothesis was termed the *monitor hypothesis*. Krashen (2002) argued that three conditions must be present before a language student can successfully self-monitor his or her output: (a) sufficient time for the student to analyze the output, (b) a conscious decision to focus on form, and (c) possession of sufficient explicit knowledge of the target language’s grammatical rules (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). Based on the findings of research in language acquisition, the third hypothesis of the Monitor Model (Krashen 2002, 2009) stated that there exists a predictable timeline in which certain morphological or syntactical features of a particular language are acquired; this was termed as

natural order (Krashen, 2002, 2009; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). However, the existence of a natural order doesn't preclude individual variation in acquisition or variation that might arise from first language negative transference (Krashen, 2002; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). With the fourth hypothesis of the model, known as the *input hypothesis* (Krashen 2002, 2009), Krashen postulated that acquisition is directly driven by a language learner's comprehension of target language input that occurs in natural communication contexts (Krashen 2002, 2009; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). Krashen (2002, 2009) argued that acquisition requires *comprehensible input*; that is, not only should the input be understandable, but that it should also employ grammatical structures that are just beyond the cusp of the student's current knowledge so that the student must use context, paralinguistic information, and previous knowledge to fully comprehend the input. Krashen formulated this process as $(i + 1)$, with i representing input and $+1$ indicating a level of linguistic competence that is only slightly ahead of that possessed by the student (Krashen, 2002, 2009; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). The fifth and final hypothesis of the Monitor Model, known as the *affective filter hypothesis*, was concerned with the affective variables that have been found to play a facilitative role in SLA, namely motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety (Krashen, 2009; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). Krashen (2002) argued that if these variables are not optimal then the negative affect serves to "filter out certain aspects of the input" (p. 110); that is, the presence of low motivation or self-confidence and/or high anxiety in a student inhibits language acquisition. Krashen expressed the relationship of the five hypotheses together as "[P]eople acquire second languages when they obtain comprehensible input and when their affective filters are low enough to allow the input in" (as cited in Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). According to Suzanne F. Peregoy and Owen F. Boyle (2001), within Krashen's Monitor Model, "comprehensible input is the causative variable in

second language acquisition” (p. 45), which has the consequence of promoting listening comprehension as the key skill in second language pedagogy. Peregoy and Boyle (2001) argued that the Monitor Model theory has influenced second language pedagogy in three significant ways: (a) promoting the turn toward communicative language teaching; (b) supporting the practice of allowing a silent period for language students, where “they can acquire some language knowledge by listening and understanding, as opposed to learning it through meaningless rote drills” (p. 45); and (c) drawing attention toward the importance of a low-anxiety environment within the language classroom.

Long’s Interaction Hypothesis

Whereas Krashen’s (2002, 2009) Monitor Model was primarily concerned with the role of comprehensible input in driving SLA, Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (1981, 1996) postulated that SLL is driven by the conversational adjustments required for comprehensible discourse when non-native speakers interact with native speakers; in other words, acquisition occurs when second language learners and their interlocutors attempt to overcome a breakdown in communication. SLL researchers use the term *negotiation of meaning* to describe what occurs when participants in a conversation employ various communicative strategies (e.g., speaking more slowly, paraphrasing, asking for clarification or confirmation, repetition, etc.) to address difficulties in comprehension (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Long (1996) claimed that negotiation of meaning has the effect of maximizing the comprehensibility of linguistic input for second language learners, in part through providing negative evidence through feedback that allows the language learner to infer correct grammatical forms; however, this claim is not without controversy (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Similarly, as Krashen’s (2002, 2009) concept of a language acquisition device was rooted in the Universal

Grammar approach's perspective of the nature of language; in 1996, Long revised the framework of his Interaction Hypothesis to incorporate concepts from the Cognitivist approach, such as noticing and information processing (*e.g.*, Schmidt, 1990); a claim which has also not gone unchallenged within the interactionist approach (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013).

Functionalism

The theories that make up the functionalist approach to SLL are primarily concerned with how learners of a second language make meaning and achieve communicative goals in the target language; indeed, functionalists argue that second language learner's attempts to make meaning are what drives development in the target language in concert with the development of a formal linguistic system in the learner's mind (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013) argued that the functionalist approach typically views an individual language learner as attempting to acquire a second language for communicative needs and social integration into the community of speakers of the target language; as such, Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013) noted that functionalism shares many of the same concerns of motivation, identity, and communities as the sociolinguistic approach.

Sociocultural Theory

Since the *social turn* in SLL (Block, 2003; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Swain & Deters, 2007), many researchers have begun to examine the SLL from the perspective that it is "quintessentially a mediated social process rather than individual" (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013, p. 56). One such approach that has seen increased popularity since the social turn is the sociocultural theory approach (Lantoff, ed., 2000). SLL researchers working from this approach have argued for the relevance of concepts from Lev Vygotsky's theory of learning (Duff, 2007; Lantoff, ed., 2000; Swain, 1993); in particular, the sociocultural SLL approach posits that

learning is mediated through the use of mental tools, primarily language, and that this mediation is inherently social, in that it requires interaction and collaborative problem-solving with an expert or with one's peers (Duff, 2007; Lantoff, ed., 2000; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013).

According to Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden (2013) five concepts within sociocultural theory have particular relevance for SLL: *mediation*, *scaffolding*, *microgenesis*, *private/inner speech*, and *activity theory*. By mediation, sociocultural theorists mean the argument that language mediates thought; that is, language is the primary tool humans employ for cognition, which entails that learning is a mediated process as well (Lantoff, 2000; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Mooney, 2013). Scaffolding is a metaphor employed in sociocultural theory to describe the process in which more skilled individuals use language, particularly during face-to-face interaction, to guide learners in the accomplishment of a task an individual learner is not ready to perform without guidance (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Mooney, 2013).

According to sociocultural theory, as the learner performs the task under the guidance of an expert, the learner internalizes, or *appropriates*, the knowledge being collaboratively constructed through the performance of shared activity (Lantoff, 2000; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Mooney, 2013). Sociocultural theorists argue that scaffolded learning takes place within an individual's *zone of proximal development* (ZPD), which is defined as the conceptual area bounded by the most difficult task a learner can perform without assistance and the most difficult task a learner can perform scaffolded (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Mooney, 2013).

Related to scaffolding is the concept of microgenesis, which is the acquisition of new knowledge and skills by and individual through face-to-face, meaningful interaction with other people (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Similarly, private/inner speech is related to the concept of mediation; as sociocultural theorists argue that language is the primary cognitive tool, private

speech refers to talk that learners perform for themselves as they perform a task as part of a process of regulation (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Sociocultural theory posits that as learners develop skill in a particular task, private speech is eventually internalized to become inner speech (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Finally, activity theory refers to the neo-Vygotskian concern for how individual actions and goals are related to the greater sociocultural context in which they occur (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013).

These concepts have been central to several recent SLL studies which employed a sociocultural theoretical approach; for example, Amy Synder Ohta's (2001) longitudinal case study of seven second language learners of Japanese found that the participants regularly employed private speech when encountering new or difficult language. Ohta (2001) claimed that private speech allowed these learners to master new phonetic and phonological information and skills through repetitive recitation, as well as allowing the learners to formulate and test hypotheses concerning the morphosyntactic rules of the second language; furthermore, Ohta (2001) argued that use of private speech allowed the learners to rehearse conversational exchanges before being placed in pair or group classroom activities. Similarly, a study by Jina Lee (2008) used data collected from video- and audio-recordings of seven Korean-English bilingual students when studying alone in their rooms for a university examination. Lee (2008) found that all of the study participants engaged in some form of private speech while studying for the exam, and that much of the private speech was conducted in both languages; additionally, Lee (2008) found that the participants used self-directed gestures along with their private speech. Lee (2008) argued that these gestures and private speech represented the participants' attempts at self-regulation through dialogic interaction with one's self. Where the studies by Ohta (2001) and Lee (2008) looked at the use of private speech, a study conducted by Steven G. McCafferty,

Regina F. Roebuck, and Ratre P. Wayland (2001) examined the acquisition of second language vocabulary through the lens of activity theory. McCafferty et al. (2001) asked two groups of students learning Spanish as a second language to perform two different language tasks; the first group were provided with a list of animal-themed vocabulary words to be used in composing an essay about zoos, whereas the second group were instructed to interview their classmates about their childhood language learning experiences. In contrast to the first group, the second group were allowed to ask for any vocabulary needed during the performance of the linguistic task; McCafferty et al. (2001) found that the second group not only actively used the requested vocabulary during the interview task, but that the retention of the supplied words was higher than the first group. As such, McCafferty et al. (2001) argued that tasks like vocabulary acquisition are enhanced when connected to a particular goal.

Swain's Output Hypothesis and "Languaging"

Standing in contrast to Krashen's focus on linguistic input, the Output Hypothesis advanced by Merrill Swain (1993) was originally grounded in an interactionist approach, but has more recently evolved to employ concepts from the sociocultural tradition of Vygotsky (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). While agreeing with Krashen's (2002, 2009) arguments that communicative language teaching is conducive to language acquisition and learning, Swain (1993) pointed to her research of Canadian immersion programs in which students received copious amounts of comprehensible input in the target language, yet could not achieve native-speaker levels of fluency. Based on the findings of her research, Swain (1993) argued that the primary factor in language learning is output (*i.e.*, the production of oral or written language) as opposed to comprehensible input. Swain (1993) postulated four ways in which output drives the language learning process: (1) output gives the learner opportunity for meaningful practice, (2) it

can highlight gaps in a learner's linguistic knowledge, (3) it allows the learner to test the hypotheses they have generated concerning linguistic rules, and (4) it provides the vehicle in which meaningful interaction with native speakers "can provide learners with information about the comprehensibility or well-formedness of their utterances" (p. 160).

According to Swain (1993), one implication of the output hypothesis for second language pedagogy is that language learners "need to be pushed to make use of their resources; they need to have their linguistic abilities stretched to their fullest; they need to reflect on their output and consider ways of modifying it to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness and accuracy" (pp. 160-161). As such, Swain (1993) argued that collaborative learning provides the optimal condition in which learners could be pushed due to opportunity it provides for extended discourse leading to greater amounts of "output and negotiation of meaning" (p. 162) as compared to traditional teacher-oriented instruction. As evidence for this, Swain (1993) cited research which showed that meaning was negotiated more when two nonnative speakers interacted than when the interaction was between a native speaker and a nonnative one.

Another concept introduced by Swain (1985) is *linguaging*. According to Swain (2006), linguaging is "the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language" (p. 98). In terms of SLL, it's the use of private speech and collaborative dialog to learn another language (Swain, 2006). According to sociocultural theorists (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Swain, 1985; Swain, Lapkin, Knouzi, Suzuki, & Brooks, 2009), linguaging assists the learner with learning conceptual knowledge concerning the grammar of the target language.

Sociolinguistic Approach

The sociolinguistic theoretical approach to SLL is another facet of the social turn in second language learning (Block, 2003) that is informed by the inquiry of sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics, social psychology, and other related disciplines (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013); many of its concerns are similar to those of the sociocultural approach and certain socially-focused interactionist theories (Duff, 2007; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Like the cognitivist approach, the sociolinguistic approach is home to a large number of theories (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013), and as such, only those concepts or theories that bear relevance to the inquiry of the study are detailed in this literature review. One concept of relevance is *second language socialization*, which, according to Patricia A. Duff (2007), “involves explicit or implicit socialization through linguistic and social interaction into relevant local communicative practices or ways of using language and into membership in particular cultures or communities, with their own values, ideologies, and activities” (p. 310). For example, Deborah Poole’s (1992) ethnography of adult English as a Second Language (ESL) learners found that the use of language by the teachers in her study was culturally bound, which in turn, had consequences for the socially-mediated language learning that occurred their classes. Poole (1992) observed that the ESL teachers in her study employed inclusive plural pronouns at the beginning of group tasks, but switched to singular pronouns at the end of group activities when students were given individual praise. Poole (1992) argued that this pronoun shift was reflective of an American cultural value system in which success is accredited to individuals and not groups.

Another concept that some SLL theories within sociolinguistic theoretical approach incorporate into their frameworks is the argument that SLL is a *socially situated* activity that

involves participation in a *community of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). A key study that established this concept was Bonnie Norton's (2000) ethnography of five adult immigrant women living in Canada; Norton (2000) argued that successful language learning for the participants in her study was related to their success in gaining acceptance into a group in which they could expand their opportunities for linguistic practice. A later study by Patricia A. Duff (2007) of Korean students enrolled in a Canadian university reported that the participants found themselves marginalized from the larger student population; however, they were able to form a community of practice with ethnically-Korean Canadian students on campus in which they could study academic English in a bilingual environment.

Norton's (2000) ethnography was also influential in opening a line of scholarly inquiry into how issues of power and ideology promote or hinder opportunities for second language learning. For example, Gordon Pon, Tara Goldstein, and Sandra R. Schecter (2003) engaged in ethnographic fieldwork among a community of immigrants from Hong Kong studying at a Canadian high school; Pon et al. (2003) found that the cultural values of the students impeded their participation in the academic culture of the school as the students' reticence in class was interpreted by their teachers and non-Chinese peers as signaling a lack of motivation and participation. According to Pon et al. (2003) the Eurocentric cultural orientation of the school fostered the belief among its faculty that participation and engagement in academic work is conveyed through classroom talk; as such, the students' taciturn classroom behavior that stemmed from being raised in a culture where answering a teacher's question in class would be seen as a pretentious display of learning, was often misinterpreted by teachers and non-Chinese peers when the students were observed to easily engage in conversation with each other outside

of class. Pon et al. (2003) concluded that the different cultural values held between the two groups led to stereotyping that inhibited the Hong Kong-born students from integrating into the larger academic community. Additionally, Norton's (2000) work also helped to draw researchers' attention to investigating the role identity and agency play in SLL (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Norton (2000) argued that language and identity interacted with one another in that language is the mechanism in which one negotiates one's identity and that one's identity determines the opportunities in which language can be used in certain contexts. From her findings, Norton (2000) developed the concept of the *right to speak*, which refers to the opportunities available to a second language learner to use and learn the target language; Norton (2000) argued that the right to speak was related to one's identity. For example, one participant in Norton's study (Norton, 2000; Norton & Toohey, 2001), a Czech immigrant working in a fast food restaurant, reported that she was brusquely ordered around by her coworkers, despite them being much younger than her; however, she eventually asserted her identity as an adult, which Norton (2000) argued provided her with increased opportunity to speak English in this setting.

Finally, another area of investigation that the sociolinguistic approach has also sought pursue is how affect and learner *investment* influence SLL (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Cummins, 2001; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Jane Arnold and H. Douglas Brown (1999) argued that affective factors influence SLL at both the individual and social-relational levels. According to Arnold and Brown (1999) individual affective factors include anxiety, inhibition, extroversion-introversion, self-esteem, motivation, and learning style; relational factors include empathy, classroom culture and dynamics, and cross-cultural contact. Arnold and Brown (1999) argued that all of these factors interact with one another to influence the SLL process at the affective level. Similarly, Norton (2000) claimed that the amount of effort the participants in her study

invested in learning English was related to the identities the participants sought to develop. Investment was distinguished from motivation in that it references the social and historical relationship of the learner to the target language (Norton & McKinney, 2011), whereas, motivation traditionally refers to individual choice, persistence and effort towards the accomplishment of a task (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). In his framework for academic language learning, Jim Cummins (2001) argued that within the interpersonal space created by student-teacher interactions within the classroom, learner investment and cognitive engagement had a positive reciprocal relationship.

Gardner's Socio-Educational Model

Working within the crossroads of social psychology and second language learning, Robert C. Gardner (2011) drew upon his earlier research on language learning motivation (*e.g.*, Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1960) to present a theory of second language learning that he termed as the “socio-educational model” (p. 24) that consists of four aggregate variables: Integrativeness, Attitudes toward the Learning Situation, Motivation, and Language Anxiety. Gardner (2011) stated that the socio-educational model conceptualizes language learning in a classroom context as a “dynamic process in which the affective variables representing the educational and cultural contexts serve as the foundation for motivation and that motivation and language aptitude are the two major individual difference variables influencing relative achievement” (p. 25). The variables that comprise Gardner’s (2011) socio-educational model of SLL can be measured through the use of the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) instrument (Gardner, 2004). Acknowledging that language learning can occur in formal (*i.e.*, classroom) or informal contexts, Gardner (2011) argued that SLL in the classroom differs from classroom learning in other subjects as “it involves making features of another cultural

community part of one's own self, and it is this difference that implicates the cultural context and this integrativeness" (p. 25). Within Gardner's (2011) model, it is posited that an integrative motive is conducive to successful second language learning.

Language Proficiency and Achievement

Peregoy and Boyle (2001) defined *language proficiency* as "the ability to use a language effectively and appropriately throughout the range of social, personal, school, and work situations required for daily living in a given society" (p. 29). In Peregoy and Boyle's (2001) definition is the recognition that knowledge of the social conventions concerning language use are as important as knowledge of grammatical rules when judging one's proficiency in a language; Peregoy and Boyle noted that it is for this reason, that language proficiency is often referred to as *communicative competence*. Peregoy and Boyle (2001) explained that using a particular language to communicate requires the simultaneous coordination one's knowledge of the language's subsystems (*i.e.*, its phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics). One way to measure second language proficiency is by achievement as measured by a standardized instrument; commonly used assessments for academic English include: the Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB), International English Language Testing System (IELTS), International Test of English Proficiency (iTEP), and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) (Boston Educational Services, 2015; CaMLA, n.d.; Gillet, 2011; Kaplan, 1971).

In accounting for individual difference in language achievement, Gardner (2011) posited that achievement is determined by ability and motivation. Gardner (2011), defined ability as being composed of intelligence and language aptitude; as such, high ability is related to high achievement. On the other hand, according to Gardner (2011), even if a learner possesses high

ability the expected level of language achievement may not be reached due to low motivation on the part of the learner. Similarly, in Gardner's (2011) model, learner anxiety and proficiency are related; high levels of anxiety may lead to low levels of proficiency, just as low levels of proficiency increase learner anxiety. Using Gardner's (2011) Socio-Educational Model as a framework, a study by Tomoko Yashima (2002) of almost 300 Japanese university students found that proficiency in speaking another language was influenced by learner motivation and linguistic ability; it was also found that motivation was influenced by desire, intensity, and international posture. From these findings, Yashima (2002) proposed a relationship between second language proficiency, confidence, international posture, and second language verbal communicative ability. According to Yashima (2002), learners' verbal proficiency in a second language influences their confidence to communicate in that language; a low level of verbal proficiency can lead to communication anxiety, which in turn can lead to learner anxiety in the classroom, on tests, and in general use of the language. A high level of communication anxiety lowers a student's confidence, which in turn, lowers his or hers willingness to communicate in the second language. A low willingness to communicate leads to a learner not taking opportunities to practice speaking in the second language, and thus, developing their verbal proficiency. Therefore, within Yashima's (2002) model, it is theorized that proficiency builds upon itself.

Academic Language Proficiency

One concept of language proficiency that has been highly influential in the discipline of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and thusly, helped to shape the modern curriculum taught in most university-affiliated Intensive English programs (Nakaprasit, 2010), has been Cummins' (2001) BICS/CALP model which distinguishes between the language needed for everyday social

interaction and that needed in academic contexts (Cummins, 2001; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001); Cummins (2001) labeled the former Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and the latter Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). Cummins (2001) argued that this distinction was important in language education; one example of this distinction's importance cited by Cummins was the faulty language policies that have been mandated based on the ignorance of the fact that while research has shown that it takes 1 to 2 years to acquire proficiency in BICS, it takes 5 to 7 years to acquire proficiency in CALP. Based on what he believed to be the misuse of standardized test scores to justify the State of California's legislation to ban bilingual education, in *Negotiating Identities: Education for Empowerment in a Diverse Society*, Cummins (2001) expanded upon his model to include three dimensions of proficiency: conversational fluency, discrete language skills, and academic language proficiency. Cummins (2001) defined conversational fluency as "the ability to carry on a conversation in familiar face-to-face situations" (p. 65); whereas, discrete language skills are "specific phonological, literacy and grammatical knowledge that students acquire as a result of direct instruction and both formal and informal practice" (p. 65). On the other hand, academic language proficiency was defined by Cummins (2001) as "knowledge of the less frequent vocabulary of English as well as the ability to interpret and produce increasingly complex written (and oral) language" (p. 65). The difference between discrete language skills and academic language proficiency was described by Cummins (2001) as the difference between reading (*i.e.*, a discrete language skill) and reading comprehension (*i.e.*, academic language proficiency); Cummins (2001) argued that the development of academic language proficiency "requires very different forms of instruction than the forms that are successful in teaching discrete language skills" (p. 66).

Cummins (2001) proposed a typological framework in which to classify the cognitive and contextual demands of a particular language task or activity along two continuums: context embedded/context reduced and cognitively undemanding/cognitively demanding. Cummins (2001) cited a casual conversation as an example of a context embedded, cognitively undemanding language activity; whereas, the linguistic functions involved in academic use language are an example of a context reduced, cognitively demanding activity. Cummins (2001) pointed to the passive voice, relative clause construction, and Greco-Latin affixes and root words as examples of the specialized and complex knowledge of the English language students are expected to master in academic settings that are not typically encountered in everyday social interaction. Cummins (2001) stated that the “essential aspect of *academic* language proficiency is the ability to make complex meanings explicit in either oral or written modalities by use of *language itself*” (p. 70); that is, in the academic context, meaning is not often conveyed through contextual or paralinguistic cues (such as body language or intonation).

Language Learner Characteristics and Background

Paul C. Krueger (1989) examined the relationship between English language proficiency and the academic success of international students enrolled in an American university; one finding of the study was that learner characteristics were predictive of academic success. For example, Krueger (1989) pointed to the fact that students enrolled in Business and Computer Science did better than students enrolled in other majors. Likewise, Krueger (1989) found that students from China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan, showed greater academic success than international students from other countries. Thus, Krueger (1989) concluded that future researchers need recognize that learner characteristics are an important factor in language proficiency and academic success.

Further research in this topic was conducted by Harry Gradman and Edith Hanania (1991) who employed mixed-methods to investigate the relationship between English language proficiency and 44 language learning background variables. The participants of Gradman and Hanania's study were 101 international students who were enrolled in the Center for English Language Training (CELT), an Intensive English program affiliated with Indiana University. Data on background variables were gleaned through interviews with the students. After the interview data had been quantitatively coded, a correlational analysis was performed to determine the background variables' relationships to individual student TOEFL scores. Gradman and Hanania (1991) found that the background variable most strongly correlated with English proficiency was extracurricular reading; however, participation in an Intensive English program was also found to be strongly correlated with English proficiency. Gradman and Hanania (1991) suggested that future research on the topic might explore if the role of background variables differs between language groups.

Kim Hughes Wilhelm (1992, 1995, 1997) used the data set compiled by Gradman and Hanania (1991) to examine the success of 201 students enrolled in CELT, in relation to 36 language learning background variables. In the study, success was defined as movement from one proficiency level to another during the period a student was enrolled in the program; based on this progress, the participants were divided into three groups: high, medium, and low success learners (Wilhelm, 1995). Through statistical analysis of the data, Wilhelm (1992, 1995) identified 9 language learning background variables that were "strongly associated with success" (p. 6): (a) school level in which English was learned, (b) number of family members who have studied in English-speaking countries, (c) previous exposure to English as the language of instruction, (d) number of years since English was last studied, (e) number of years of university

English, (f) teaching focus in English class, (g) first language, (h) attitudes toward English class, and (i) stated purpose for learning English. Wilhelm (1995) argued that the study revealed that students who had already demonstrated medium or better language proficiency tended to show consistent progress through the CELT; therefore, “the needs of less proficient learners may be better served by different program [sic] or by courses which focus less on learning English for academic purposes” (p. 15). Wilhelm (1995) suggested that Intensive English programs could perform similar studies to “help identify the characteristics of learners best served” (p. 15) by their particular programs.

Attitude and Motivation in Second Language Acquisition/Learning

Several researchers have argued that attitude and motivation are critical factors in second language acquisition (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 2011; Yashima, 2002). Zoltán Dörnyei and Ema Ushioda (2010) defined *motivation* as an aspect of human behavior comprised of (a) the choice to undertake a particular action, (b) level of persistence willing to accomplish the chosen task, and (c) the amount of effort willing to be spent on accomplishing the task. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) noted that current research suggests that motivation should be conceptualized as a dynamic system akin to the mathematical models that describe the swing of a clock’s pendulum as opposed to being modeled as a simple linear flowchart.

An early advance in the field was the *integrative/instrumental* distinction made by Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972). Gardner and Lambert (1972) proposed that second language learning motivation could be classified as one of two types: integrative or instrumental. Integrative motivation finds its origin within a sincere desire to integrate into a new culture through learning the language of its speakers for the purposes of one’s own enrichment; on the

other hand, instrumental motivation stems from a need to learn a language to accomplish a certain goal (*e.g.*, studying or doing business abroad). In other words, for integrative motivation the target language is the end; whereas, for instrumental motivation the target language is a means to an end. Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that high levels of integrative motivation led to better language learning outcomes than high levels of instrumental motivation.

The integrative/instrumental distinction was incorporated into Gardner's (2011) socio-educational model of SLA, in which integrativeness was proposed as a complex variable composed of those "variables associated with the cultural context involving characteristics of the individual that makes him or her open to cultural input" (p. 25). As integrativeness composes the *social* half of Gardner's (2011) model, another variable, attitudes toward the learning situation, composes the *educational* half; as a variable, attitudes toward the learning situation measures "affective reactions to any aspect of the learning environment" (p. 25). Gardner (2011) argued that integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated, and together, they influence the model's third variable, motivation to learn the language. On the other hand, in Gardner's (2011) model, motivation is negatively correlated with the fourth variable language anxiety; Gardner (2011) argued that high levels of language anxiety serve to inhibit an individual student's second language achievement. The four variables of Gardner's (2004, 2011) socio-educational model are measured by the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), in which two other correlational variables, instrumental orientation and parental encouragement, are sometimes included.

Dörnyei criticized the concept of integrative motivation in that research has found that integrativeness is an aspect found in only certain sociocultural contexts and that it does not adequately address the rise of English as an international language (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010).

In 2005, Dörnyei proposed the L2 Motivational Self System which is composed of (a) *Ideal L2 Self*, (b) *Ought-to L2 Self*, and (c) *L2 Learning Experience*; Dörnyei summarized the model as “the learner’s vision of oneself as an effective L2 speaker, the social pressure coming from the learner’s environment and positive learning experiences” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 86). In support of the validity of his model, Dörnyei pointed to research which found that integrativeness and Ideal L2 Self displayed “an average correlation of well over 0.50” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 86). Furthermore, Dörnyei argued that the results of several quantitative studies have found that the Ideal L2 Self had stronger explanatory power than integrativeness, as well as the fact that the two variables which make up instrumental orientation were found to be correlated with Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 Self (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010).

Elements of Gardner’s (2011) model and Dörnyei & Ushioda’s model (2010) were combined in the theoretical framework employed by A. Lane Igoudin (2008) in a mixed-methods case study to explore the language learning motivations of adult immigrant ESL students enrolled in an advanced reading course at Long Beach City College. Igoudin (2008) employed Gardner’s AMTB, Ushioda’s (as cited in Igoudin, 2008) semi-structured interviewing protocol, non-site observation, and document collection as data collection methods for the study. Explicitly excluding international students from the population studied, Igoudin (2008) found that for adult immigrant students, while there were strong instrumental motivations present, the primary motivation for language study was integrative; that is, they desired to more fully participate in Anglophone American culture and society. This motivation was found to stem from the subject’s awareness of a disjuncture between desired identity and career goals and his or her current proficiency in English.

On the other hand, Heather Weger-Guntharp (2008) investigated the motivation of 131 adult Intensive English program students enrolled in a university located in Washington, D.C.; using a questionnaire to measure motivation as well as preference for classroom activities, Weger-Guntharp (2008) found that it was difficult to draw a distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation for the learners in her sample. Indeed, because while international students do reside in the United States for an extended period of time, they differ from immigrants in that they mostly do not intend to seek to permanently reside in the United States; as such, Weger-Guntharp (2008) argued that if motivation is viewed as a continuum that incorporates integrative and instrumental motivations, then most of the learners in her sample would reside in the middle of the spectrum. In addition, Weger-Guntharp (2008) explained that using a continuum as a framework for understanding Intensive English student motivation reflects the fact that motivation is fluctuating and dynamic. The sample in Weger-Guntharp's (2008) study also showed a preference for listening and speaking activities to writing. It was concluded by Weger-Guntharp (2008) that preference in classroom activity may be connected to students' identities as international students and their ideas concerning how they will use English in the future; in short, it could be that listening and speaking were preferred by the students as they imagine themselves as future fluent speakers of English, as opposed to writers. With this in mind, Weger-Guntharp (2008) suggested that Intensive English program instructors help their students become aware of the rigorous expectations for writing and reading ability that English for Academic Purposes demands of them, so that the students might internalize the recognition of that need.

Amotivation and Demotivation

In addition to motivation, *demotivation* can have a significant influence on an individual's acquisition of a second language (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Hu, 2011). Noting that social context can have a positive effect on second language acquisition, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) acknowledged that it could also have a negative effect; they defined demotivation as those "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action" (p. 139). Furthermore, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) contrasted demotivation with Edward Deci and Richard Ryan's (1985) concept of *amotivation*, which refers to the feelings of helplessness or inability that might accompany expectations of achievement perceived as unrealistic by the student. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), amotivation stems from factors that are completely beyond an individual's intentional control; furthermore, amotivating factors can occur from feelings of being overwhelmed by forces originating both from inside an individual or from the outside environment. Despite their recognized importance in the process of learning another language, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) argued that amotivation and demotivation remain under-researched topics in second language acquisition.

The few research studies that have been done on demotivation (*e.g.*, Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Hu, 2011) suggest that the language teacher is the primary source for demotivating factors. For example, Ushioda found that demotivation was "related to negative aspects of the institutionalized learning context, such as particular *teaching methods* and *learning tasks*" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p.146). Likewise, the results of a study by Dörnyei identified nine major factors of demotivation among a population of L2 learners, with the biggest factor being the teacher (*e.g.*, the teacher's personality traits, competence, teaching method, commitment, etc.); three other major demotivating factors were reduced self-confidence as a result of a

classroom event, the inadequacy of school facilities (*e.g.*, class size, teacher rollover, mismatch between course materials and students' proficiency level, etc.), and negative attitudes held by the student toward the L2 (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). Similarly, in her study of Taiwanese students enrolled in a technological university, Rou-Jui Sophia Hu (2011) found that teachers were solely responsible for the three demotivating factors identified in the study: monotonous teaching, punishment, and poor teacher-student relationship. Hu (2011) argued that monotonous teaching was a result of methodology, while punishment was a result of classroom management; the two combined to negatively influence the relationship between teacher and student. Furthermore, learning difficulties, particularly in acquiring vocabulary, were found to be the most significant predictor of language proficiency; whereas, language anxiety was found to be the second most significant predictor (Hu, 2011). Hu's findings (2011) suggested that the language anxiety experienced by the students in her study was fueled by their recognition of the gaps in their vocabulary; therefore, she recommended that language teachers look for ways to reduce anxiety in their classrooms and avoid demotivating students through harsh classroom management practices and non-engaging instruction. Dörnyei & Ushioda's (2010) argument that motivation is dynamic and changing, as well as Hu's (2011) finding that demotivating factors were primarily teacher-based validated Igoudin's (2008) findings that the primary factors for student demotivation and amotivation were teacher-based (*e.g.*, instructional style, classroom activities, grading).

Language Learning Strategy Use

During the 1980s and 1990s, a shift occurred in second language acquisition from *good language learner* studies to interest in individual differences in second language acquisition (Norton & Toohey, 2001; Rose, 2012; Vann & Abraham, 1990). Good language learner studies

had sought to determine what were the distinguishing characteristics of people who learned other languages easily; as such, these studies collected data concerning the personality traits, attitudes, motivations, cognitive styles, and learning experiences of those deemed to be good language learners (Norton & Toohey, 2001). However, as good language learner research eventually proved to be less fruitful in definitively identifying characteristics held in common, researchers chose to refocus their theoretical lenses to examine what worked for individual good language learners (Norton & Toohey, 2001). One such difference is the individual use of *language learning strategies* (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). In a special issue of *System* devoted to language learning strategies, Carol Griffiths and Rebecca Oxford (2014) presented an overview of where contemporary research stood on the topic; as key issues of debate, Griffiths and Oxford identified the definition of language learning strategy, the relationship between strategy and proficiency, theoretical underpinnings, categorization, context, teachability of language learning strategies, research methodology, and analysis.

Andrew D. Cohen (1996a) defined language learning strategies as actions taken by a learner to improve his or her knowledge of a target language; Cohen (1996a) distinguished between language learning strategies and *language use strategies*, which are strategies learners use to improve their use of the target language when engaged in language tasks. In light of recent research concerning learner self-regulation (Rose, 2012), Griffiths and Oxford (2014) proposed defining language learning strategies as “activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning” (p. 2.)

Roberta J. Vann and Roberta G. Abraham (1990) argued that most good language learner/language learning strategies studies relied on a flawed methodology of self-reporting, which did not shed light on how language learning strategies were actually utilized when learners

were engaged in actual language tasks. With this in mind, Vann and Abraham (1990) employed methodological triangulation in their study of 15 international students enrolled in the intermediate and advanced levels of the Iowa State Intensive English program to determine if there were any differences in strategy use by successful and unsuccessful learners; like the Wilhelm studies (1992, 1995, 1997), Vann and Abraham (1990) used relative speed of progress through the Intensive English program as a measure of successful learning. Focusing on the strategy use of two unsuccessful female Saudi Arabian students, Vann and Abraham (1990) found that the two students possessed a “remarkably similar ... repertoire of strategies” (p. 190) when compared to successful students; however, they did not display the ability to appropriately apply strategies to a given task, which Vann and Abraham (1990) identified as reflective of a lack of metacognitive strategy use. Vann and Abraham (1990) speculated that the deficit of metacognitive strategies found in the two students might be a result of a Saudi Arabian ethnopedagogy that values rote learning over the synthesis of learned facts to create knowledge. Vann and Abraham (1990) recommended that future research into this topic investigate if explicit training in language learning strategies would be of benefit to unsuccessful language learners, as well as if preferred language learning strategies vary by age, level of formal education, personality type, and other factors.

The criticisms toward collecting data on language learning strategies through self-report levied by Vann and Abraham (1990) were addressed by Cohen (1996b), as well as by Rebecca Oxford (1996), who developed a questionnaire to assess the use of language learning strategies known as the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Oxford (1996) stated that when the SILL was administered in students' native languages, the reliability of the instrument, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, rated on a range from .91 to .95; when the SILL was

administered in the target language, it was found to have a reliability ranging from Cronbach's alpha .86 to .91. Similarly, Oxford (1996) found that the construct validity of the SILL was high in terms of the relationship between language learning strategies use and language proficiency; for example, in one study that used the SILL, it was found that language learning strategy use was responsible for almost 45% of variance in students' TOEFL scores with the most significant factor being use of metacognitive strategies.

The SILL would be employed in several studies; for example, Kyungsim Hong-Nam and Alexandra G. Leavell (2006) used the SILL to investigate the language learning strategy use of 55 students enrolled in an Intensive English program; when examining strategy use by proficiency level, a curvilinear relationship was found with intermediate level students reporting that they used language learning strategies more than beginner or advanced level students. Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) also found that the rate of progress through the Intensive English program was related to language learning strategy use by the student; in addition, although there was an overall preference for metacognitive strategies, female students tended to use affective and social strategies more than male students did. Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) suggested that explicit training in metacognitive strategies would be of benefit to learners; whereas, journaling might be of benefit as a learning strategy for male students to deal with language anxiety as they tended not to talk about their feelings concerning language difficulties with their peers as much as female students did. Furthermore, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) argued that the curvilinear relationship between language proficiency and strategy use shows that a language teacher needs to play differing roles in student language learning depending on their students' level of proficiency. For example, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) suggested that teachers of beginner level students need to explicitly develop their student's language learning strategy use through

scaffolding; whereas, for intermediate and advanced students, the teacher should assist them in developing their ability to independently choose an appropriate language learning strategies for a particular task as based on the student's preferred learning style.

Alhaisoni (2012) found similar results to Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) in a population of 701 Saudi Arabian students enrolled in an Intensive English program at the University of Ha'il; using a modified form of the SILL, Alhaisoni (2012) also looked at the relationship between language learning strategy use and gender and proficiency level. The students were found not to use language learning strategies often; however a preference for cognitive and metacognitive strategies was identified (Alhaisoni, 2012). While affective strategies and memory strategies were the least used among the population studied, Alhaisoni (2012) identified a significant preference for social strategy use by female students. However, unlike the findings of Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Alhaisoni's (2012) study revealed a simple linear relationship between proficiency and strategy use, with more proficient students using language learning strategies more frequently than low-proficient students. Nevertheless, Alhaisoni (2012) agreed with Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) that explicit attention should be given to language learning strategies in classroom instruction.

Heath Rose (2012) observed that with recent criticism of language learning strategies, many researchers are turning towards self-regulation (*i.e.*, the processes one uses to control learning) in language learning. An earlier criticism of language learning strategies, from the perspective of sociocultural theory, can be found in an article by Bonnie Toohey and Kelleen Norton (2001) who argued that language learning strategy studies often did not account for the social context in which the learning occurs that might prevent a student from selecting language learning strategies with full agency. Rose (2012) noted that the SILL has been criticized along

similar lines, as the Likert scale used in the instrument does not account for cultural and educational context; these critics suggest that language learning strategy use should be examined using qualitative methodology that can examine in-depth the context in which the learning is situated. Based on the results of his study into the strategies used by 12 learners of Japanese, Rose (2012) offered the three suggestions: (1) a study's framework must be created according to the context of the research setting, (2) interviews, focus groups, and stimulated recall tasks are more suitable methods for collecting data on strategy use than questionnaires, (3) results of language learning strategy research should not be over-generalized outside the delineations of the study, as language learning is contextual.

Acknowledging the arguments of researchers like Rose (2012), Griffiths and Oxford (2014) noted that language learning strategies theory is “multifaceted” (p. 2) in that it necessarily draws upon cognitive, behavioral, sociocultural, and other schools of thought, as language learning strategy use is a complex phenomenon that resists simple description. Conceding that instruments like the SILL are not one-size-fits-all, Griffiths and Oxford (2014) suggested that researchers either adapt language learning strategy instruments “according to the needs of the particular learners, situations, goals, and research purpose” (p. 3) or construct new instruments that are specifically geared toward the unique context in which the research population is situated. Furthermore, Griffiths and Oxford (2014) suggest that questionnaires like the SILL be complemented with qualitative methods as part of mixed-methods research into language learning strategies.

Rebecca Oxford et al., (2014) examined the narratives of 6 experts in the field of language learning strategies and identified 7 common themes running throughout each narrative: (a) learners' need for strategies, (b) providing instruction in language learning strategies for

learners, (c) the integration of instruction in language learning strategies into language teaching itself, (d) preparing teachers to assist in developing students' language learning strategies, (e) building models and research into language learning strategies to help students learn more effectively, (f) language learning strategies' incorporation into government language education policies, (g) emotional fulfillment from helping students through work in language learning strategies. Oxford et al. (2014) noted that while the experts surveyed represented a variety of theoretical approaches toward language learning strategies, the common goal of helping students improve their language learning was central to each approach. Oxford et al. (2014) exhorted researchers from different approaches to share ideas as they continued to build models and conduct investigations into language learning strategies.

Summary

While Krashen's (2002; 2009) Monitor Model of language acquisition remains popular in the field of language education (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001), since the social turn in second language acquisition/learning research (Block, 2003) many researchers taking an interactionist, sociocultural, or sociolinguistic theoretical approach to second language learning (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013) have expressed interest in the influence the social and educational context has upon language learning. Similarly, the distinction between basic communicative language and academic language (Cummins, 2001) has proven important in understanding the context in which language learning occurs. Gardner's (2011) socio-educational model of second language learning incorporates the understanding of the important role motivation plays in second language proficiency and achievement (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Hu, 2011; Igoudin, 2008). In addition to learner attitude and motivation, researchers have paid attention to how a learner's individual language learning characteristics

(Gradman & Hanania, 1991; Wilhelm, 1992, 1995, 1997) are related to language achievement. Furthermore, research into the language learning strategies a learner chooses to employ (Alhaisoni, 2012; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Norton & Toohey, 2001; Rose, 2012; Vann & Abraham, 1990) has also provided insight into how second languages are learned by adults.

English for Academic Purposes

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is a variety of the larger English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991) that focuses on the language skills necessary to successfully participate in a formal course of study at an institution where English is the medium of instruction (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Gillet, 2011; Jordan, 1997). According to Robert R. Jordan (1997), the concept of EAP originated from an ESP research agenda during the mid-1970's concerning the English language problems of international students studying in British institutions of higher education. The context in which EAP instruction takes place can vary greatly in terms of setting (*e.g.*, the Anglosphere, a country where English is a recognized secondary language, or a country where English is a foreign language) (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Jordan, 1997), instructors (*i.e.*, native speakers of English or non-native speakers), time of instruction (*i.e.*, occurring before student's intended degree program's course of study or concurrent with it), length of study, and content delivery methods (*e.g.*, formal classroom instruction, self-instruction, distance learning methods, or computer-assisted language learning) (Jordan, 1997). Similarly, within higher education, the academic unit responsible for delivering EAP instruction can vary by institution; EAP course delivery may be facilitated by a program attached to a department of English, Linguistics, Modern Languages, Education, Adult/Continuing Education or, more

commonly, facilitated by an independent language center, institute, or department belonging to the institution (Jordan, 1997; Orlando, 2016; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Szasz, 2010).

English for Specific Purposes

According to Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters (1987), English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an approach to the teaching of English that focuses on identifying and meeting the needs of specific learners; Hutchinson and Waters expressed the philosophy of ESP through the maxim “Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need” (p. 8).

Similarly, Pauline Robinson (1991) defined ESP through two criteria; that is, ESP is goal-directed and based on needs analysis. Robinson (1991) argued that certain common characteristics of ESP courses arise as a consequence of these two criteria; namely, (a) the time period of the course is clearly delineated, (b) ESP students tend to be adults, and (c) many ESP classes consist of students in the same profession or academic discipline. In other words, the methodology and syllabus used in ESP is completely driven by the specific reasons the students have for learning English (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991). In defending EAP’s categorization as a type of ESP, Andy Gillett (2011) observed that EAP displays all of the characteristics of ESP identified by Robinson (1991); namely, that EAP is orientated toward the goal of successfully participating in academia, EAP courses are based on needs analysis, students undertake EAP courses according to a clearly specified timetable, and that most EAP learners are college or university students who are over the age of 18.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) pointed to three factors that lead to the development of ESP: (a) the demands placed upon English after the Second World War when it rose to prominence as the *lingua franca* of science, technology, and commerce; (b) the communicative turn in linguistics that acknowledged language varies depending on the context in which it is

used; and (c) developments in educational psychology that revealed the importance motivation has upon learning. As such, starting in the 1960s, researchers in the fields of applied linguistics, education, and related disciplines turned their interest toward how second language instruction could meet the specialized needs of students in different settings, which has led to a panoply of abbreviations being used in the field (*e.g.*, EAP, EOP, ESP, EST, EBE, ESS, etc.) that refer to English instruction within these different contexts (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identified three major groups within ESP; English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE), and English for the Social Sciences (ESS); furthermore, within each group, the approach can have an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or an English for Vocational Purposes (EOP) focus, depending on whether the student needs the language for study or work.

Language Learning Needs and Needs Analysis

Of special importance to the EAP/ESP approach are language learning needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991; Schmidt, 1981). Robinson (1991) noted that the definition of term *need* can vary depending on one's view of teaching and learning. In her discussion of language learning needs, Robinson (1991) cited several different definitions: (a) what student has to be able to do at the end of the language course, (b) the views of a particular institution or society in general concerning what should be learned from a language course, (c) what is necessary to be done by the learner in order to acquire the language, (d) what a particular learner desires from a language course, and (e) what the student cannot presently do with the target language. Robinson (1991) noted that the varying conceptualizations of needs can stand in opposition to each other in varying ways; for example, learners and teachers could have contrasting definitions of need. Likewise, needs can be categorized as *objective* (*i.e.*, able to be

deduced from factual information about learners) and *subjective* (i.e., a student's cognitive and affective perceptions of the learning situation), as well as *target* versus *learning* needs (Robinson, 1991).

The process of determining language learning needs is known as *needs analysis* (Benesch, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). Considering the importance of an awareness of language learners' needs in the ESP approach, many have argued that needs analysis is a critical aspect of ESP (e.g., Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Nunan, 1988; Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Robinson, 1991). In second language education, needs analysis is defined as the formal or informal collection and analysis of data concerning language learners and the context in which the learning takes place that can be conducted before the initial course or after the course has begun (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). A variety of data collection techniques are available for needs analysis, including but not limited to, questionnaires, interviews, observation, document analysis, case studies of individual learners, and learner's diaries (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; M. Long, 2005; Robinson, 1991). Jack C. Richards (as cited in Nunan, 1988) argued that needs analysis "serves three main purposes: it provides a means of obtaining wider input into the content, design and implementation of a language programme; it can be used in developing goals, objectives and content; and it can provide data for reviewing and evaluating an existing programme" (p. 43).

While David Nunan (1988) stated that the origins of needs analysis can be found in the development of communicative language teaching methodology during the early 1970s, Ali Akbar Khansir and Farhad Pakdel (2014) noted that the term was actually first used in 1926 by Michael West in his survey of the needs of Bengali students of English. Nevertheless, many researchers point to the work done under the auspices of the Council of Europe Modern

Languages Project during the 1970s and 1980s as informing the modern understanding of needs analysis (Benesch, 2001; Khansir & Pakdel, 2014; M. Long, 2005; Nunan, 1988); in particular, the report, *Identifying the Needs of Adults Learning a Foreign Language*, prepared for the Council of Europe by René Richterich and Jean-Louis Chancerel in 1977. Another influential work on needs analysis published during this time was John Munby's (1978) *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Sarah Benesch (2001) traced two of the three major approaches to needs analysis, target situation analysis (TSA) and present situation analysis (PSA), to the work of Munby (1978) and Richterich and Chanerel (1980) respectively.

TSA is an approach to needs analysis that examines students' needs at the end of the course (Abdullah, 2005; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991); in other words, TSA is an attempt to identify what language skills and knowledge are necessary to function appropriately in a target situation (Abdullah, 2005; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). An influential framework for TSA is Munby's (1978) *communication needs processor* (CNP), in which a detailed profile of a learner's needs is developed through a systematic and detailed analysis of the socio-communicative variables concerning the learner and the context of the target situation (Benesch, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). However, Munby's (1978) CNP was criticized by several researchers on the basis that it narrowly focused on what linguistic features a particular learner needed to know in a particular target situation as opposed to what is needed in a particular learning situation for a learner to acquire those linguistic features (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Nunan, 1988). Nevertheless, Munby's (1978) influence remains in needs analysis through the use of systematic, detailed, and empirical data collection and analysis. Gillet (2011) discussed TSA, which he termed target needs analysis

(TNA), through the framework of four key elements: target language use, explicit knowledge of the target language, knowledge of the target culture, and intercultural awareness.

On the other hand, PSA is concerned with identifying learner needs at the onset of a language course (Robinson, 1991). Richterich and Chancerel (1980) formulated several lists of key information necessary in identifying learner needs that originate from the student, the language-teaching establishment, and from the user-institution (*i.e.*, societal institutions that require the use of foreign languages). In PSA, one or more of these sources are surveyed in order to glean information concerning linguistic proficiency, strengths and weaknesses, resources available for learning, and beliefs concerning language teaching and learning (Abdullah, 2005; Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Robinson, 1991). Eventually, applied linguists and language educators would recognize TSA and PSA as complementary to one another, and incorporate both in needs analysis (Jordan, 1997; Rahman, 2012; Robinson, 1991).

As time went on, another component of needs analysis, Learning Situation Analysis (LSA), would be recognized (Abdullah, 2005; Rahman, 2012). Stemming from the arguments by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Richard Allwright (as cited in Jordan, 1997), and David Nunan (1988) concerning the need to identify what they termed as *subjective* needs, (*i.e.*, the learners' wants and expectations), LSA investigates student's preferred learning styles and metacognitive strategies, student attitudes and motivations toward language learning, and student wants, desires, and expectations (Abdullah, 2005; Rahman, 2012). This aspect of LSA is sometimes referred to as *strategy analysis* (Jordan, 1997). Similarly, *means analysis* examines the learning situation in terms of "cultural attitudes, resources, materials, equipment, and methods" (Jordan, 1997, p. 27). Jordan (1997) explained that means analysis seeks to identify what is possible with the resources available, as opposed to what is not, for the purposes of

identifying culturally appropriate instructional methods. For example, Jordan (1997) cited cultural differences in preference for class size; that is, extensive teacher-monitored group-work might not be the most appropriate instructional strategy in a culture that prefers larger, lecture-hall style instruction.

Advocating for a critical EAP approach that incorporates awareness of power differentials in academic contexts, Benesch (2001) introduced the term *rights analysis*. Benesch (2001) criticized the “pragmatic instrumentalism” (p. 61) with which needs analysis is often conducted that “conflat[es] learner needs with institutional requirements ... naturaliz[ing] what is socially constructed, making externally imposed rules seem not just normal but immutable” (p. 61). Rights analysis, however, takes into account the power relations between the student and the academic institution, so that inequities in societal, institutional and classroom contexts can be identified and challenged (Benesch, 2001). In Benesch’s (2001) view needs analysis and rights analysis are two halves of a dialectic, in which synthesis is found through negotiation. In problematizing rights, Benesch (2001) argued that they were situated within a particular context and “must be discovered in each setting” (p. 109). Thusly, for Benesch (2001) the goal of rights analysis “is to discover what is possible, desirable, and beneficial at a certain moment with a particular group of students” (p. 109).

EAP Curriculum and Course Design

EAP is sometimes further divided into English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP); EGAP focuses on the skills needed for the different situations or activities found in academic settings; whereas, ESAP focuses on the subject-specific vocabulary and stylistic conventions of a particular discipline (*e.g.*, medicine, law, business, etc.) (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Jordan, 1997). Robinson (1991) observed

that there seemed to be a nationally-based preference between EGAP and ESAP, with British textbook writers favoring ESAP and American textbook writers favoring EGAP; however, both Jordan (1997) and Robinson (1991) agreed that the choice between EGAP and ESAP should be one that is driven by empirical data on student needs gleaned from a comprehensive needs analysis.

As part of the larger ESP approach, EAP concerns itself with the use of language to accomplish linguistic tasks in targeted situations (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). Jordan (1991) identified 8 target situations or activities addressed by EAP: lectures, seminars/group discussions, laboratory/field work, reading academic texts as part of private study, reference material/library use, academic writing (*e.g.*, essays, reports, theses, research articles, etc.), conducting research, and oral and written examinations. Language use in these situations consists of tasks that are part of four linguistic domains, that is, the receptive domains of reading and listening and the productive domains of writing and speaking (Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991).

Another important component of the EAP curriculum are *study skills* (Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991); however, there is currently no consensus as to the definition of what study skills are. Both Robinson (1991) and Jordan (1997) distinguished between *narrow* and *broad* views of study skills. Robinson (1991) argued for a narrow view of study skills, restricting the term to the “mechanical” (p. 106) skills needed for academic study (*i.e.*, familiarity with how to use the library, note-taking strategies, knowledge of the various formats for research papers, etc.); whereas, Jordan (1997) advocated a broad view of study skills, defining them as the discrete skills necessary when using a language for the purposes of study. This has led to some confusion as to the place study skills has in the EAP curriculum. For someone taking a broad

view, like Jordan (1997) or Henry G. Widdowson (1981), EAP and study skills are synonymous; indeed, Widdowson (1981) asserted that “we should consider academic purposes in terms of learning processes reflected in specific methodologies rather than static goals defined as language knowledge” (p.9). On the other hand, Gillet (2011), argued that study skills (narrowly-defined) are ancillary to the main objective of EAP.

Reading

According to Robinson (1991), the skills most needed by EAP students lie in the domain of reading. Two concerns identified by Robinson (1991) were the relationship between development in reading and other skills and the extent to which prior knowledge in a particular topic can assist with comprehension of a text in a student’s second language; Robinson (1991) stressed that instruction in academic reading should be centered on developing skill in comprehension, as opposed to treating texts as extended grammar exercises. Jordan (1997) agreed that comprehension should be the focus of academic reading instruction, noting that academic reading is purposeful, and as such, readers are concerned with comprehending both the subject matter of the text and the language used to communicate the subject matter. Furthermore, Jordan (1997) argued that depending on the purpose for reading, different reading strategies or skills are employed in comprehending the text; strategies and skills identified by Jordan (1997) include: predicting, reading quickly to glean a text’s main idea, reading quickly to find a specific detail, distinguishing between fact and opinion, drawing inferences, using context to understand the meaning of unfamiliar words, understanding graphs and charts, and understanding rhetorical organization and schema.

Writing

Robinson (1991) observed that within the field of EAP there was debate between the process approach to academic writing and the product approach. Jordan (1997) explained that the product approach is primarily concerned with how well the finished product of a student's writing meets its intended rhetorical function (*e.g.*, comparison and contrast, description, narration, persuasion, etc.) and the stylistic conventions of its intended genre of academic writing (*e.g.*, essay, research paper, dissertation, etc.); on the other hand, Jordan (1997) stated that the process approach is primarily concerned with the mental process of writing (*e.g.*, planning, drafting, revision, etc.). According to Jordan, the process approach arose as a reaction to what some saw as the restrictions on individual expression the product approach placed upon student writers through a focus on model-following. While noting that process writing seems to get students to write more fluently, Robinson (1991) argued that EAP students shall eventually be asked to write texts which must conform to rigorous and specific disciplined-based stylistic conventions; therefore, she advocated for a middle-way approach where both product and process were attended to in academic writing instruction. Nevertheless, taking the product approach in mind, Robinson (1991) noted the connection academic writing has to reading; as students must be able to comprehend, analyze, and manipulate model texts through reading in order to internalize the model when writing.

Listening

Common listening tasks in the EAP setting involve listening to information given in lectures, seminars, and group discussions (Robinson, 1991). According to Robinson (1991), students may have problems with lecturers' use of informal language, particular accent of English, or lack of use of rhetorical signposting words which aid in comprehending the

organization of a lecture; furthermore, students may not recognize the spoken form of vocabulary words they have only encountered in reading, and they may have problems with taking notes quickly.

Speaking

Robinson (1991) felt that academic speaking does not have as much attention paid to it as the other domains of language, noting that needs analyses usually reveal it as the skill of least need; however, Robinson (1991) observed that while speaking was not often perceived by students as a need, it was often perceived as a want, as speaking proficiency is viewed as reflective of one's mastery of the language. Speaking tasks in EAP settings include participating in group discussions and seminars, asking questions during lectures, giving oral presentations, and social interaction with other students (Robinson, 1991). Robinson (1991) noted that empirical research in EAP was rare; however, Robinson cited research that suggested academic speaking success is more a function of subject matter knowledge than mastery of linguistic forms.

Study Skills/Strategies

While EAP addresses stylistic conventions of language use that are unique to the academic register of English (Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991), Robinson (1991) noted that the study skills and academic language strategies taught in EAP courses (*e.g.*, skimming a text to identify the main idea, distinguishing fact from opinion, strengthening a proposition with supporting detail, etc.) are not language specific; however, for many EAP students, they are encountering these skills for the first time in English. Therefore, Robinson (1991) suggested that difficulties experienced by students in acquiring these skills might not result as much from deficits in their knowledge of English as much as poor reading ability in their first language;

indeed, Robinson noted that these skills need to be explicitly taught to native speakers of English as well as to English language learners. Gillet (2011) took a narrow view of study skills as well; however, while acknowledging that skills like time management are important to students in higher education, he asserted that the primary objective of EAP was to teach both general and discipline specific academic language skills.

EAP Teaching Approach

Gillet (2011) explained that EAP instructors and course designers need awareness of individual differences in learning preferences and strategies. Acknowledging the various major models of second language acquisition (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013), Gillet (2011) argued that linguistic input, output, and noticing are attended to in EAP through task-based teaching with authentic texts and materials. Concerning ESAP, Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St. John (1998) identified 3 levels of engagement with the specific discipline: *cooperation*, *collaboration*, and *team-teaching*. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), cooperation consists of the EAP instructor gathering information about his or her students' subject area, and how English is expected to be used in their subject area courses; collaboration consists of EAP and subject-area instructors working together to prepare students for subject-area courses; and team-teaching consists of EAP and subject-area instructors working together in the same classroom. While noting the difficulties inherent in collaboration and team-teaching, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) advocated that ESAP instructors should aspire to move from cooperation to closer working relationships with subject-area instructors.

Summary

EAP, according to Robinson (1991), is “continuously developing” (p. 106). Having branched off from the larger ESP approach (Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991), EAP concerns itself

with the use of English in the specific context of academia. While EAP can be targeted toward English use in specific academic disciplines or in academic study in general (Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991), a distinguishing characteristic of EAP is its focus on study skills as well as discrete language skills (*i.e.*, reading, writing, speaking, and listening) (Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). Similar to other ESP approaches, EAP course design relies heavily on the identification of student language learning needs through a process known as needs analysis (Abdullah, 2005; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; M. Long, 2005; Robinson, 1991). Approaches to needs analysis include: target situation analysis (TSA), which investigates what the students' language needs will be at the end of the course (Robinson, 1991); present situation analysis (PSA), which investigates what the students' language needs are at the beginning of the course (Robinson, 1991); learning situation analysis (LSA), which investigates what students' needs are concerning how they learn (Abdullah, 2005; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Rahman, 2012); and rights analysis, a critical approach to needs analysis that attempts to problematize the power differentials that exist between international students and their hosting institutions (Benesch, 2001).

Intensive English Programs

One method of content delivery for EAP at the postsecondary level is the *Intensive English program*, a pre-sessional course of study designed to improve the English proficiency of international students in a short period of time (Barrett, 1982; Dantas-Whitney & Dimmitt, 2002; Jordan, 1997; Kaplan, 1971). The development of the Intensive English program, and the discipline of applied linguistics itself, is closely tied with the American government's need for language training during the Second World War and the Cold War (Axelrod, 1945; Benesch, 2001; McArthur, 1998; Paratore, 1959). The first Intensive English program located on the

campus of a North American institution of higher education was the English Language Institute (ELI Michigan), which was established by the University of Michigan in 1941 using a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation (Bennett, 1996; Burgess, 2002; English Language Institute, 2006). The increasing number of international students on campus, particularly from Latin America, served as the primary reason for the program's establishment (English Language Institute, 2006; Koekoek, 1959; Paratore, 1959). ELI Michigan's affiliation with the young discipline of applied linguistics was clearly seen in its mission "to conduct research in teaching English as a foreign language and to test new scientifically-based materials for the teaching of English" (English Language Institute, 2006); additionally, several of the scholars who were affiliated with ELI Michigan during this time are considered to be founding scholars of applied linguistics as well, including, not only the founder of ELI Michigan, Charles C. Fries, but also Robert Lado, Betty Wallace Robinett, and Kenneth L. Pike (Koekoek, 1959; McArthur, 1998). Furthermore, in 1948, Fries founded the first scholarly journal of applied linguistics, *Language Learning*, with the specific purpose to disseminate research conducted at ELI Michigan.

Therefore, it can be argued that the early disciplinary interests of applied linguistics have left an indelible mark upon the methodology of Intensive English programs themselves; one reason Intensive English programs teach English intensively is that they were first conceptualized at a time when the interests of applied linguistics was turned toward researching intensive language acquisition methodologies for use by the military and diplomatic service. This contextualized understanding of language acquisition was discussed by Joseph Axelrod (1945), who investigated the intensive language acquisition methodology used by the Navy Language School in order to determine its suitability for a modern languages course in a civilian context. Drawing upon his own experience as a language teacher who had attended a 3.5 months

long Intensive Japanese course at the Navy Language School, Axelrod (1945) described the aims and techniques of the intensive language instruction of the school. Axelrod (1945) argued that the school's success in helping students acquire communicative fluency in the target language was rooted in the fact that students were expected to spend 18 hours a week in class, the curriculum touched upon all four discrete language skills, the medium of instruction was in the target language, the curriculum was primarily linguistic (as opposed to cultural), and that the instruction was systematic and rigorous. However, Axelrod (1945) cautioned that the success of the school's intensive methodology was related to both its aims and the context of instruction. As such, it comes as no surprise that many of the characteristics identified by Axelrod (1945) continue to be defining characteristics of Intensive English program instruction, including the criterion of at least 18 hours of instruction a week (Andrade, 2009; Kaplan, 1971; National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1983; Staczek & Carkin, 1984; Thompson, 2013).

The late 1940s and early 1950s saw the beginning of several economic and political trends, including the establishment of the Fulbright Educational Exchange Program and the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers (NAFSA), that contributed to an increase of the numbers of international students enrolled in American institutions of higher education. According to Teresa Bevis and Christopher Lucas (2007), in the year 1942, there were 8,075 international students enrolled in 600 institutions in the United States; within seven years, the Institute of International Education reported that this number increased by a factor of four to 26,759 (English Language Institute, 2006; Bevis & Lucas, 2007). Many of these students had the same language needs as the students enrolled in ELI Michigan, and as such, other institutions sought to emulate the Intensive English model; indeed, several programs at other universities were founded by individuals "who had been associated" with ELI Michigan (English Language

Institute, 2006). To support the growth of Intensive English programs, throughout the 1950s, Lado and Fries compiled the materials used by ELI Michigan under the title *An Intensive Course in English* (Koekoek, 1959; Paratore, 1959).

The growth of Intensive English programs continued throughout the 1960s and 70s; so much so that in a guidebook on determining English language proficiency published by NAFSA, Robert B. Kaplan (1971) observed with alarm that “[i]n recent years, as institutions have become gradually more aware of the problems relating to English language proficiency, there has been an epidemic growth of small [Intensive English] programs ... [that] frequently involves competitive duplication of services and competition for limited staff ... [which] tends to produce heterogeneity in quality to a degree dangerous to the health of the profession” (p. 13). Despite the existence of other student populations in university-affiliated Intensive English programs (Crossman & Pinchbeck, 2012; de Berly & McGraw, 2010; Igoudin, 2008; Roegdke & Lynn, 1976; Szasz, 2010), international students have been the largest source of growth for these programs (Andrade, 2009; Farrugia, Bhandari, & Chow, 2013). In a NAFSA publication intended for higher education administrators interested learning how they could meet the needs of international students more effectively, Ellen Mashiko (1983) explained that “most students traveling to the United States for enrollment in academic programs need some form of English language training. Many seek this training even if the receiving institution does not require further training ... English language training is an integral part of – and can constitute the whole – study experience of many foreign students in the United States” (p. 58). At the time of Mashiko’s (1983) study, English language programs, including Intensive English programs, were a “rapidly growing activity” (p. 58) and that it was “evident to the ‘outside’ that there are a number of such programs recruiting throughout the world, many both recruiting and

disseminating information very effectively” (pp. 58-59). One factor that has led to the continued growth of Intensive English programs (Farrugia, Bhandari, & Chow, 2013) is their profitability; according to Maureen Snow Andrade (2009), international students annually contribute around 14.5 billion dollars to the American economy with international undergraduate students funding almost 82 percent of their education out-of-pocket. Andrade (2009) observed that Intensive English programs are “most often considered revenue sources for their sponsoring institutions” (p. 6); noting that while only about 3 percent of international students in the United States were enrolled in Intensive English programs at the time, Andrade (2009) argued that these programs “represent a significant source of income for some institutions and also serve as a means of recruiting students into the institution” (p. 6).

In the last three decades, there have been several attempts to identify commonalities within these programs so that a definitive description of Intensive English programs could be assembled. Ralph Pat Barret (1982) and Christine Uber Grosse and Dawna Lubell (1984) proposed definitions based on the common structural characteristics of such programs. In *The Administration of Intensive English Programs*, Barrett (1982) listed nine common characteristics found in most Intensive English programs: (1) the delivery of ESL content across a minimum of three levels of language proficiency, (2) the use of standardized tests for placement in the program and to assess language proficiency, (3) a focus on the four discrete language skills in addition to grammar study, (4) an affiliation with an institution of higher education as a service department, (5) a course of study that occurs throughout the academic year and summer so that it is possible for a student to progress through all levels of the program within a year, (6) the provision of at least 20 hours of instruction a week, (7) the offering of advisors or counselors who assist with personal, academic, or immigration issues, (8) the majority of students being

adults who have completed secondary schooling in their country who intend to enroll in a degree program in an institution of higher education abroad, and (9) the faculty and administration of the program being TESOL professionals who possess, at minimum, a master's degree in Applied Linguistics, TESOL, or related fields. Similarly, in 1984, Grosse and Lubell found that the typical Intensive English program is organized around either 14 to 16 week terms or 8 to 10 week terms, with 16 to 24 days of instruction offered per week. In support of Barrett's (1982) view, Grosse and Lubell (1984) found that Intensive English programs typically offer multiple levels of instruction in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and grammar; furthermore, almost half of the Intensive English programs surveyed offered elective courses that addressed other skills or subjects, such as pronunciation, study skills, TOEFL preparation, and American culture. Also, while half of the Intensive English programs reported that their classes could be taken for credit, the amount of course credit granted varied between institutions (Grosse & Lubell, 1984). More recently, Patricia Szasz (2010) noted that in the wake of recent federal regulations concerning Intensive English study, a definition for the term *Intensive English program* could be found in American immigration law as a full course of language study that consists of at least 18 hours of instruction a week.

Alternatively, some have attempted to define Intensive English programs through identification of a common purpose (Jenkins, 1983; Stoller, 1994; Szasz, 2010). In 1980, the NAFSA Principles for International Educational Exchange, in which three principles specifically dealt with Intensive English programs, stated that the purpose of such programs were the “[developing] and [strengthening] the English skills of persons whose native language is not English, usually in preparation for pursuing an academic program at the graduate or undergraduate level” (Jenkins, 1983, p. 326). Likewise, Fredricka L. Stoller (1994) argued that despite the

diversity of Intensive English program organizational and administrative patterns, it was possible to identify “an inviolable core” (p. 1) that consisted of the elements necessary to achieve the common mission of preparing international students for success in a program of study at an English-speaking institution of higher education through Intensive instruction in academic English and acculturation to the norms and expectations of the postsecondary classroom. Stoller (1994) asserted that the inviolable core consisted of three elements: a curriculum that not only was theme-based and integrated the four discrete language skills, but also prepared students to engage in academic cognitive tasks and familiarized them with “the expectations of the academic community” (p. 4); a regular status on campus that was equivalent to that of other departments; and an “interested, involved, and creative faculty” (p. 5). Similarly, Szasz (2010) argued that the purpose of these programs is defined by the putative goals of their students; that is, to gain admission into a degree-granting, academic program of study; however, Szasz (2010) also observed that Intensive English programs also attract international students more interested in “a short term study-abroad experience” (p. 195), as well as language minority American residents and citizens who desire to improve their English proficiency to advance in their career or expand their job opportunities.

The current situation of Intensive English programs was detailed in studies by Andrade (2009) and Szasz (2010). At the time of Andrade’s study (2009), the membership of the American Association of Intensive English Programs (AAIEP), also known as EnglishUSA (EnglishUSA, 2013), consisted of almost 300 programs. Both Andrade (2009) and Szasz (2010) explained that Intensive English programs can operate as independent private language schools or as academic units within institutions of higher education; Andrade (2009) found that those Intensive English programs that were affiliated with institutions of higher education were

typically either part of a continuing education unit or located within an academic department. However, Szasz (2010) observed a growing trend of Intensive English program privatization, where the programs are contracted out by the institution to for-profit companies as a way of freeing the institution from the program's operating costs. Concerning Intensive English program faculty, Szasz (2010) found that the average working experience of an Intensive English program instructor was 18.13 years; furthermore, 63.7% of the respondents held an MA in TESOL or applied linguistics, and 66.1% of the respondents taught in a university-affiliated Intensive English program. While 69.4% of the respondents classified themselves as full-time instructors, Szasz (2010) found that there was "great concern" (p. 198) as to the definition of full-time vs. part-time employment; Szasz noted that multiple respondents indicated that they taught 20-25 hours per week, yet they were classified as adjunct instructors who were not eligible for benefits from their hosting institution.

Attitudes and Motivation of Students in Intensive English Programs

As noted earlier, several researchers have pointed to the importance of learner attitude and motivation in second language acquisition (Crandall, 1999; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 2011; Yashima, 2002). As such, there have been a number of studies that have investigated the attitudes and motivations of students enrolled in Intensive English programs (Aloiau, 2001; Broomhead, 2013; Jernigan & Mihai, 2008; Komiyama, 2009; Nasiri & Shokrpour, 2012; Tarnopolsky, 1999; Weger, 2013; Windish, 1993). For example, Charles E. Windish (1993) surveyed Intensive English program students to determine if there was a relationship between the motivations of participants and the perception of those motivations by their Intensive English program instructors, as well as determining if motivational typology differed by cultural background. Through factor analysis, Windish (1993)

found that motivational factors previously identified in studies on American adult learners were similar those of international students enrolled in Intensive English programs; a total of eight factors were identified: communication, social contact, professional advancement, educational preparation, cognitive interest, family, social stimulation, and altruism. Windish (1993) found that the largest motivation factor for Intensive English program students, in general, was communication; other factors that ranked highly were professional advancement and educational preparation. When the data were disaggregated by culture group, Windish (1993) found that communication was the highest ranked factor for Thai and Turkish participants; whereas, social contact ranked highest for the Japanese participants, social stimulation ranked highly for the Korean, Chinese, and Arab participants, and altruism ranked highly for Arab and Hispanic students. Windish (1993) also found that there was a positive correlation between Intensive English program's instructors perception of a particular student's motivation and the student's actual motivation, which suggested that the Intensive English program instructors in the study were, in general, aware of motives of the students in their classes. Windish (1993) argued that the "strong relationship between the results of this study and previous studies in this area suggests that additional research theories, models, and methodologies from the field of adult education might be appropriate for the field of ESL" (p. 90).

Edwin K. Aloiau (2001) sought to determine if motivation of students enrolled in a Japanese Intensive English program could be enhanced through training in goal setting strategies; however, it was found that the participants in the two treatment groups showed no significant improvement in academic performance, English proficiency, or commitment as compared to the control group. Nevertheless, Aloiau (2001) reported that a correlation did exist

between academic performance and commitment, which indicated high commitment was related to high motivation.

Justin Jernigan and Florin Mihai (2008) found that the Intensive English program students in their survey-based study typically preferred explicit feedback concerning their errors; however, a preference was also shown toward the implicit method of giving feedback through restatement of an utterance in which the teacher corrects the error. Jernigan and Mihai (2008) also found that more proficient students preferred feedback focused on accuracy as opposed to fluency. Based on the findings of their research, Jernigan and Mihai (2008) stressed the importance of conducting needs analyses to determine student attitudes toward certain classroom practices in terms of their wants.

The majority of participants in Reiko Komiyama's (2009) study of academic reading motivation were enrolled in Intensive English programs, of which it was found there were 5 motivational factors (1 intrinsic and 4 extrinsic), as well as 5 motivational profiles, for academic reading within the population studied that varied according to gender, English language proficiency, purpose for coming to the United States, and amount of reading. Komiyama (2009) argued that her findings suggest that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are involved in EAP reading motivation; however, while intrinsic motivation was found to be especially important for reading comprehension, extrinsic motivations were found to inhibit reading comprehension. Similarly, the importance of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation was identified in a study conducted by Elham Nasiri and Nasrin Shokrpour (2012) of the English performance of 170 first-year students enrolled in Shiraz University of Medical Sciences; the participants in the student were assigned into either an Intensive or non-Intensive English course based on pre-test scores, and the same text was used in both courses. Nasiri and Shokrpour (2012) found that

there was no significant difference between the achievement of Intensive and non-Intensive students in the post-test; the researchers argued that one possible explanation of the unexpected result was that the population from which the participants in the study were recruited consisted of medical, dental, and pharmacy students whose coursework was extremely rigorous and time-consuming, leaving little time for the study of English as a foreign language.

The mindset of the participants in Nasiri and Shokrpour's (2012) study might be similar to that of the Intensive English program participants identified in a phenomenological study of international students' transition into an English-only learning environment that was conducted by Alan Broomhead (2013). Like Joan E. Friedenberg (2002, 2009), Broomhead (2013) noted that the English-only methodology employed in most Intensive English programs contrasts with the bilingual approaches used in most countries; thusly, a certain amount of adaptation is required by the student. Broomhead (2013) found that the students participating in his study had "unique paths" (p. 107) to English-only methodology prior to enrollment in the American, university-affiliated Intensive English program that was the setting for the study; these unique paths led to each participant having differing experiences and perceptions of English-only methodology; however, the participants shared a common experience of struggle to adapt that led to the participants expressing negative affect toward the idea of the English-only classroom. Additionally, the term *English-only* was found to be "subjectively determined" (Broomhead, 2013, p. 107) with the participants having differing views on what constituted English-only methodology; furthermore, the participants varied in their willingness to take advantage of the learning opportunities present in an immersive English-only classroom. Additionally, Broomhead (2013) found that while some participants stated that they thought in English, other participants switched between their native language and English when engaged in classroom

tasks. From his findings, Broomhead (2013) argued the implications for Intensive English program classroom practice were that while “English-only policies and practices appear to be justifiable in university English language programs in which students are participating voluntarily” (p. 119), they aren’t as appropriate for programs that have student populations which include a large number of “involuntary participants” (p. 119). According to Broomhead (2013), many of the growing numbers students from Saudi Arabia or China can be classified as involuntary participants, as both groups contain considerable numbers of individuals for whom “English language learning is not the end, but only a means to their ultimate goal, a U.S. university degree” (p. 119); therefore, Broomhead (2013) suggested that Intensive English programs that employ English-only policies and practices explicitly inform prospective students that the instruction their programs are dependent on English-only methodology as a way to create an immersive language learning environment, as well as what these prospective students will need to do in class to successfully take advantage of the learning opportunities present in such an environment.

Heather D. Weger (2013) investigated Intensive English program student motivation using Gardner’s (2011) socio-educational model. Situating her study within an Intensive English program affiliated with a major university located in the northeast of the United States, Weger’s (2013) factor analysis revealed that five motivational constructs were present: Learning Self-Confidence, Attitudes toward English Language Learning/Community, Personal English Use, Value of English Learning, and International Posture; the factors with the highest average scores were Value of English Learning, Personal English Use, and International Posture. Weger (2013) argued that her findings suggest that personal pride in acquiring proficiency in English and the increase in social status that comes with such proficiency, as opposed to any positive attitudes

held toward Anglosphere culture, were primary language learning motivations for the participants in her study. However, Weger (2013) acknowledged that the generalizability of her study's findings might be limited to Asian populations as 70% of the study's participants were Asian.

Administrative Models and Practices of Intensive English programs

There exists a diversity of administrative patterns and structures within university-affiliated Intensive English programs (Grosse & Lubell, 1984; Jenkins, 1983; Thompson, 2013). However, Elaine Dehghanpisheh (1987) proposed a typology of administrative models that classified Intensive English programs into one of four types based on how students enter and exit the program; according to her model, most Intensive English programs can be classified as *conservative, traditional, bridging, or progressive*. A conservative Intensive English program offers students two options that are based on their score on an English proficiency test: (1) the student can either enroll in non-credit Intensive English program courses or (2) enroll in a full-time academic course of study with the requirement of taking a freshman English course specifically geared toward international students (Dehghanpisheh, 1987). On the other hand, following the tradition of offering native-speaking domestic students remedial English composition courses, a traditional Intensive English program offers students three options: (1) rejection for admission into a degree program but allowance to take full-time Intensive English courses, (2) conditional admittance and placement into a remedial English course, and (3) depending on one's score on a separate institutionally-based placement exam, placement in an Intensive English program, remedial English, freshman English, or exemption from freshman English all together (Dehghanpisheh, 1987). A bridging Intensive English program also offers students three options in that it provides for a transition between Intensive English and freshman

English by offering *semi-Intensive English* classes (Dehghanpisheh, 1987); semi-Intensive English was defined by Dehghanpisheh (1987) as being a part-time program of study offered to conditionally admitted or regularly admitted international students with low scores on an on-site placement test. Finally, a progressive Intensive English program is one that does not use an English proficiency test as a prerequisite for admission as part of a general open undergraduate admissions policy; whereas, a progressive Intensive English program offers the same options as a bridging Intensive English program, placement into one of the tracks is solely determined by on-site institutionally-based placement testing and not by pre-admissions English proficiency test scores (e.g., TOEFL, IELTS, MELAB, etc.) (Dehghanpisheh, 1987).

Dehghanpisheh (1987) argued that the weakest model was the conservative model; within this model, Dehghanpisheh (1987) argued the student receives the least amount of help in adjustment from language study to full-time academic study. Likewise, Dehghanpisheh (1987) identified the weaknesses of the traditional model as it does not sufficiently address deficiencies in academic English skills. According to Dehghanpisheh (1987), while both the progressive and bridging models address the weaknesses inherent in the conservative and traditional models, an advantage the bridging model has over the progressive model is that it still allows for control over admission. Nevertheless, Dehghanpisheh (1987) argued that the progressive model “offers special opportunities for the international student that are not available with the other models” (p. 576), in that they allow international students to be judged solely on the merit of their academic ability as opposed to their present proficiency in English, as well as being placed in a program of courses that are specifically geared toward their needs. In addition, Dehghanpisheh (1987) argued that the progressive model is more democratic than other models and addresses complaints concerning the cultural bias of the TOEFL; however, Dehghanpisheh also

acknowledged that potential drawbacks of the progressive model might be “pressure put on the ESL program to bring all students up to a very high level of English proficiency in a short time and the problem of eliminating those students who, for one reason or another, are unable to attain this level” (p. 576). Dehghanpisheh (1987) suggested that future research should seek to identify programs that do not fit into one of the four models as a way to develop new models of university-level ESL program administration.

An example of an administrative model that lied outside of Dehghanpisheh’s (1987) typological model was the Intensive English program run by Southeast Missouri State University (Janopoulous, 1989). The program’s director, Michael Janopoulous (1989), explained that the program allowed students in its Intensive English program to enroll in at least one credit-bearing course irrespective of their English proficiency in the belief that this allows Intensive English program students to gain first-hand knowledge of the demands and expectations of the American postsecondary classroom. Furthermore, Janopoulous (1989) argued that this policy gave the students a “sense of academic progress” (p. 8), as well as providing the program’s administrators and faculty with a more authentic metric than standardized testing to assist in deciding when a particular student is ready to leave the Intensive English program. Janopoulous (1989) explained that the Intensive English program closely monitored its students enrolled in courses outside their program and maintained communication with their instructors so that if a student was in danger of failing a course the program could either provide assistance or withdraw the student. Janopoulous (1989) was of the opinion that program’s unique model of providing the opportunity to enroll in regular, credit-bearing courses gave it an advantage over other institutions in the region for competition over quality international students.

Thinan Nakaprasit (2010) argued that administrative flexibility was necessary to meet individual learning needs in the Intensive English program classroom; she argued that several common Intensive English program administrative practices reduced the flexibility of such programs. For example, Nakaprasit (2010) cited fixed time frames for study, organization of curricular content into discrete language skills (*i.e.*, reading, writing, speaking, listening, grammar, etc.), division of students by proficiency level, and top-down control of classroom instruction (*e.g.*, prescribed textbooks and curricula) as global administrative practices that reduce a program's ability to adapt to the needs of those students who fall outside of the mean.

Marginalization of Intensive English Programs in American Academia

The marginalization of English as a Second Language (ESL) occurs in all levels of American education (*e.g.*, Benesch, 2001; Cummins, 2001; Dabach, 2015; Fox, 1988; Hopkins, Lowenhaupt, & Sweet, 2015; McGee, Haworth, & MacIntyre, 2015; Kanno & Kangas, 2014; Stanley, 1994; Vandrick, 1995, 1997). Therefore, it is not surprising that a major theme found within the research on Intensive English programs was the identification and documentation of the marginalization of international students, and Intensive English program faculty and administrators (Brown, 1998; Friedenber, 2002, 2009; Kaplan, 1971; Lin et al., 2004; Mahboob, 2003; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994). The perception that Intensive English programs are a marginalized academic unit existed relatively early in their history. Indeed, this perception can perhaps be traced to the discussion held by 13 Intensive English program directors during the 1967 NAFSA convention concerning their programs' marginalization on their respective campuses; this discussion was the impetus for the creation of the Consortium of University Intensive English Programs (CUIEP), an organization that advocates for standards and accreditation within university-affiliated Intensive English

programs (University and College Intensive English Programs, 2015). However, it wasn't until the mid-1980's, when motivated by a resolution passed by the TESOL International Association to study the working conditions of ESL professionals (Case, 1998), that researchers earnestly initiated the academic conversation concerning the marginalization of Intensive English programs (Case, 1998; Grosse & Lubell, 1984; Staczek & Carkin, 1985).

A major factor contributing to the marginalization of Intensive English programs is their *academic homelessness* (Kaplan, 1971; Case, 1998; Thompson, 2013). In 1971, NAFSA published a guidebook authored by Robert B. Kaplan intended to advise those administrators in higher education who desired to establish ESL departments on their campuses; in the section titled "An Academic Home for ESL," Kaplan argued for the establishment of ESL as an independent academic unit. However, Kaplan (1971) conceded that ESL programs have disciplinary connections to English, Speech, Modern Languages, Linguistics, and Education departments; with this in mind, Kaplan (1971) mused that "it may be wise to establish the program under the supervision of an interdisciplinary committee, in the belief that good persons working together with good will should be able to produce a viable product" (p. 12).

Unfortunately, Kaplan's (1971) optimism concerning the merits of collaboration proved to be unfounded. Indeed, contrary to Kaplan's ideal of ESL as an independent academic unit, it was only 13 years later that Christine Uber Grosse and Dawna Lubell (1984) found that there was still great variance in the governing academic unit of Intensive English programs at their various institutions; according to Grosse and Lubell (1984), one third of Intensive English programs surveyed belonged to their institution's continuing education division, while others were found to either be governed by departments of Foreign Languages, English, or Linguistics, or existed as independent units affiliated with colleges of Arts and Sciences, Humanities, and others.

A consequence of this academic homelessness is that Intensive English program faculty and administrators often find themselves barred from meaningfully participating in the creation of policy at their hosting institutions (Case, 1998; Staczek & Carkin, 1984); John Staczek and Susan Carkin (1984) identified 5 structural incompatibilities between Intensive English programs and their hosting institutions that have contributed to these programs' marginalization in academia: (1) there exists no ESL major from which an international student can earn a degree; (2) most ESL programs are non-credit; (3) the academic qualifications of ESL instructors are not respected, as most instructors speak English as their native language; (4) Intensive English programs are preadmission programs, thus many administrators view them as remedial; and (5) TESOL is a relatively young field that lacks the status of more established academic disciplines. Staczek and Carkin (1984) argued that as a result of these incompatibilities, there is often a lack of consistent policy concerning the instruction of international students, of which the consequences contribute toward the negative attitudes held by some faculty and administrators toward international students.

Several researchers have argued that the path to Intensive English program enfranchisement could be found through an understanding of the political context of academia, allowing Intensive English program directors to navigate it for their benefit (Case, 1998; Fox, 1988; Staczek and Carkin, 1984; Stanley, 1994; Szasz, 2010). In a paper that was presented during the 1988 convention of the TESOL International Association, Carkin argued that the ability of international students to earn credit-hours through their participation in Intensive English program courses can serve a bellwether for a particular program's marginalization or enfranchisement; furthermore, Carkin (1988) argued that the enfranchisement of international students was intimately tied to the enfranchisement of postsecondary ESL, of which providing

academic credit for courses taken in Intensive English programs was “one small step to be taken toward ... full enfranchisement of international students” (p. 12). Similarly, an issue brief on postsecondary ESL administration authored by Robert Fox (1988) bluntly acknowledged that “many university administrators still feel that anyone who speaks English can teach ESL” (p. 4); to counter this perception, Fox admonished Intensive English program directors to only hire faculty whose possess the professional qualifications necessary to teach postsecondary ESL and to ensure that they are paid salaries equivalent to their peers in other departments. Noting that faculty morale was connected to perceptions of being treated professionally, Fox (1988) cited job security as a hallmark of professional status; therefore, he recommended that part-time faculty make up no more that 10 to 15 percent of an Intensive English program’s teaching corps. Karen Stanley (1994) observed that most Intensive English programs affiliated with an institution of higher education suffer from a lack of support from faculty in other departments, an inappropriately high ratio of adjunct faculty to full-time faculty with no action taken to rectify the situation, negative attitudes toward ESL students by other faculty, marginal status, the threat of being replaced by for-profit contractors who pay instructors less, and a lack of perceived value by Linguistics programs that offer degrees in TESOL but offer few actual courses in applied linguistics. Stanley (1994) suggested various approaches to ameliorate these problems: (a) networking with staff and faculty on campus, (b) educating others on the problems Intensive English programs face, (c) working to increase the number of people who are willing to speak out concerning the problems faced by the program, (d) employing outside experts to advocate for the program, (e) appealing to the financial concerns of the institution, (f) increasing the visibility of the program and its faculty, (g) learning and understanding the interests of other stakeholders on campus, and (h) seeking outside accreditation from an outside organization. Having found

similar findings as previous researchers in terms of the working conditions for Intensive English program faculty, Szasz (2010) recommended that university-affiliated Intensive English programs use the large amount of revenue typically generated by their programs, and through international students in general, as leverage in the quest for professional equity within academia. Furthermore, Szasz (2010) argued that Intensive English program faculty and administrators should support the movement initiated by UCIEP and the American Association of Intensive English Programs (AAIEP or EnglishUSA) to introduce federal legislation that would prohibit the operation of unaccredited English programs.

While acknowledging the benefits of increased professionalization of the field through accreditation and improved educational and employment standards, Rod Ellis Case (1998) believed that such reforms do not fully address the root causes of Intensive English program marginalization. Using reference group theory (Merton, 1968) as a framework, Case (1998) posited that Intensive English program marginalization is a result of the tension between a particular Intensive English program faculty member's or administrator's desire to identify with the program and his or her desire to identify with the institution as a whole. Therefore, Case (1998) argued that Intensive English program marginalization could only be addressed through integrating Intensive English programs more fully into their host institutions; Case (1998) suggested that more opportunities be given to Intensive English program faculty to present their various contributions to their institution, which would empower Intensive English program faculty to claim identification with both groups. The tension felt by Intensive English program faculty between their identification with their program and with the larger institution was also explored by Stephanie Vandrick (1997), who observed that many Intensive English program faculty and administrators attempt to deal with the marginalization they experience on campus by

“emphasizing that they teaching English or writing” (p. 155) in an attempt to pass as mainstream faculty. Vandrick (1997) argued that this attempt at passing, compounded with the lack of job security most Intensive English program instructors experience cause Intensive English program faculty to experience undue “psychological trauma” (p. 156).

In 1994, Stephanie Vandrick, Johnnie Johnson Hafernik, and Dorothy S. Messerschmitt used a feminist theoretical lens to open a new line of inquiry by suggesting that since both Intensive English program students and teachers are “predominantly female” (Thompson, 2013, p. 214), sexism and ethno-linguistic chauvinism were significant marginalizing factors. Vandrick et al. (1994) observed that the low status accorded to ESL faculty within academia was connected to the fact that Intensive English programs are composed of a primarily female instructional corps. Indeed, Vandrick et al. (1994) found that within American Intensive English programs, females represented 65% of their full-time administrative staff, 71% of faculty with administrative duties, and 81% of nonacademic support staff; similarly, it was found that 74% of full-time faculty and 78% of adjunct faculty were female. Vandrick et al. (1994) noted that in 70% of the Intensive English programs surveyed, full-time faculty were not given the same benefits, pay, or status that were offered to faculty in other departments; furthermore, in 12% of those programs, full-time faculty were not placed in tenure-track positions. Vandrick et al. (1994) argued that the status of Intensive English programs in academia was reflective of the fact that predominately female professions have their work unjustly devalued; furthermore, Vandrick et al. (1994) suggested that “the low status of ESL, women, and international students seem to be inextricably intertwined and seem to reinforce each other” (p. 49). Noting that any meaningful action to rectify the marginalization of Intensive English programs must address all three intersecting aspects, Vandrick et al. (1994) argued that postsecondary ESL professionals need

simultaneously to advocate for women's equity, as well as to work to reduce prejudice against international students and minority students, while improving the status of ESL in academia through institutional service and research. Other researchers have built upon the arguments of Vandrick et al. (1994). For example, Sherrie T. Bennett (1996), noting that the findings of her study of 46 Intensive English programs revealed that the majority of Intensive English program faculty were both female and disproportionately held adjunct status, supported the conclusion that Intensive English program faculty were marginalized within higher education. Similarly to Stanley (1994) and Vandrick et al. (1994), Bennett (1996) recommended that Intensive English program faculty could improve their status and job stability by pursuing doctoral degrees and engaging in academic publication.

Race, ethnicity, and linguistic heritage as marginalizing factors within the Intensive English program context were explored by Friedenberga (2002, 2009), Joy Lynn Muse Brown (1998), and Ahmar Mahboob (2003). Friedenberga (2002) argued that many of the restrictions imposed by university Intensive English programs (*e.g.*, prohibitions on using one's native language in class, inability to enroll in credit-bearing courses, etc.) are reflective of the "deeply rooted English-only attitudes" (p. 312) present in the American higher education system. To address the linguistic chauvinism that Friedenberga (2002, 2009) argued was a factor in the marginalization of ESL students and faculty in higher education, Friedenberga (2009) recommended that American educators familiarize themselves with the accommodations European institutions of higher education make for international students, how these accommodations have led to increased international enrollments for these institutions, and how bilingual higher education in Europe has not threatened the status of national languages or academic integrity. Looking at marginalization of faculty, Mahboob (2003) observed that while

almost 40 percent of graduate students in applied linguistics and TESOL programs are nonnative speakers of English, Mahboob (2003) pointed to the fact that the number of nonnative speakers of English as faculty in these disciplines is much lower. In survey data gleaned from the responses of 116 Intensive English program directors, Brown (1998) found evidence for hiring practices that favored native English speaking teachers (NESTs) over non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs). Evidence for this practice was also found by Mahboob (2003). The Intensive English program directors interviewed by Mahboob (2003) expressed their belief that their students preferred NESTs; however, a survey of Intensive English program students conducted by Mahboob (2003) revealed that not only did the students express no preference, but they desired to study with both NESTs and NNESTs as they believed instruction from both complemented one another. However, a later study by Mahboob (as cited in Kim, 2008) found that ESL and EFL students did express a preference for listening, speaking, and pronunciation classes led by NESTs; Mahboob argued that since international students typically emphasize their desire to master native English pronunciation, this might be one factor that contributed to the observed preference by Intensive English program directors for hiring NESTs.

Tying issues of gender, race/ethnicity, and linguistic heritage together, Lin et al. (2004) argued that little research had been done in how women faculty of color in the field of TESOL have experienced marginalization in higher education. After analyzing several narratives of marginalization within the context of TESOL in higher education, Lin et al. (2004) argued that “consistent hierarchical patterns across different institutional contexts” (p. 488) could be found that reveal how the intersectionality of gender, race, and class serve to marginalize those TESOL professionals who are women of color. Lin et al. (2004) found that one such consequence of this marginalization was that women TESOL faculty of color often found themselves assigned to

time-consuming administrative duties or course-loads. Considering the fact that the course-loads given to instructors in Intensive English programs are, by definition, Intensive, Lin et al. (2004) argued that the primarily female contingent faculty members, of whom many are women of color, who serve as instructors in these programs are marginalized by not being granted equitable time to teach “theoretical courses and write research papers or take up departmental leadership roles” (p. 494) as compared to their peers. Lin et al. (2004) suggested that to combat this marginalization the TESOL field should supplement its traditional focus on applying the insights of linguistics to real world problems with concern about linguistic and cultural diversity as well as the promotion of social justice through the medium of International English.

Summary

The marginalization of Intensive English programs stems from many factors; one factor identified by researchers is the academic homelessness that arises as a consequence of the multidisciplinary nature of postsecondary ESL (Kaplan, 1971; Case, 1998; Thompson, 2013). Due to the structural incompatibilities identified by Staczek and Carkin (1984) between Intensive English programs and their hosting institutions, Intensive English program faculty and administrators often find themselves not able to meaningfully contribute in policy-making decisions that affect them. One solution to Intensive English program marginalization that was advocated by several authors is the increased professionalization of postsecondary ESL in combination with a campaign of advocacy to educate academic peers as to the issues facing Intensive English program faculty (Case, 1998; Fox, 1988; Staczek and Carkin, 1984; Stanley, 1994; Szasz, 2010). However, other researchers have argued that the marginalization of Intensive English programs stems from factors deeper than administrative structure and point to issues of sexism, racism, classism, and linguistic chauvinism as factors that lead to the

marginalization of these program's faculty and students (Bennett, 1996; Brown, 1998; Friedenber 2002, 2009; Lin et al., 2004; Mahboob, 2003; Vandrick et al., 1994; Vandrick, 1995, 1997); for these researchers, certain inequities extant in society must be dealt with before the marginalization of Intensive English programs, and postsecondary ESL, in academia can be fully addressed.

Summary

Intensive English programs are academic units that serve their hosting institutions by preparing international students for the rigors of the American postsecondary classroom through accelerated and comprehensive instruction in academic English as well as providing a medium for the acculturation of international students to the norms and expectations of academic life (Barrett, 1982; Broomhead, 2013; Dantas-Whitney & Dimmitt, 2002). As such, Intensive English programs are tasked with increasing the second language proficiency of adult students (Robinson, 1991) in a short period of time. While the influence of the early disciplinary concerns of applied linguistics can still be seen in the characteristics of these programs (Axelrod, 1945; Barrett, 1982; Benesch, 2001; Jenkins, 1983; Kaplan, 1971), the understanding of second language acquisition has advanced since the initial founding of the first Intensive English program at the University of Michigan almost 75 years ago (Bevis & Lucas, 2007; English Language Institute, 2006). Currently, there are six major theoretical approaches to second language learning (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013); many of these approaches acknowledge the important role social and affective variables, such as motivation, play in second language proficiency and achievement (Crandall, 1999; Cummins, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lantolf, ed., 2000; Nunan, 1988). In addition, researchers have paid great attention to how second language learners apply different learning strategies in various

language learning contexts (Alhaisoni, 2012; Cohen 1996a, 1996b; Griffiths & Oxford, 2014; Rose, 2012; Vann & Abraham, 1990).

The importance of motivation to second language acquisition is reflected in the approach to language teaching employed by most Intensive English programs, known as English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which is considered a variety of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Gillet, 2011; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). In contrast to teaching English for its own sake, the ESP approach takes into account the reasons students desire to learn English; in other words, all curricular and methodological choices are to be made by taking into account the students' language learning needs (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Nunan, 1988; Robinson, 1991). In order to determine the language learning needs of a particular population of students, ESP/EAP course designers or instructors might conduct a need analysis, which is an empirically-based evaluation of the tasks and situations in which the students will use the second language, the students' current strengths and weaknesses in the second language, and the social and affective variables that might influence the teaching and learning of the second language (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; M. Long, 2005). The methodology used to collect data for needs analysis may be quantitative, qualitative, or a combination of the two; however, common data collection methods for needs analysis include questionnaires, interviews, document analysis, and observations (Jordan, 1997; M. Long, 2005).

Intensive English programs are one method of content delivery that is commonly employed to teach EAP at the postsecondary level; these programs are designed to improve proficiency in academic English in a relatively short amount of time (Barrett, 1982; Dantas-Whitney & Dimmitt, 2002; Jordan, 1997; Kaplan, 1971). Common characteristics of such

programs include content delivery organized by level of language proficiency; the use of standardized placement and proficiency tests; a focus on discrete language skills; the provision of at least 18 hours of instruction a week; a course of study that comprises of a Fall, Spring, and Summer term so that it is possible for a student to progress through all levels of the program within a year; and the faculty and administration of such programs being composed of TESOL professionals (Barrett, 1982; Grosse & Lubell, 1984). Similarly, Jenkins (1983), Stoller (1994), and Szasz (2010) have identified the common goal of these programs as preparing international students to successfully participate in a course of undergraduate or graduate study at an institution of higher education in which English is the primary medium of instruction.

Windish (1993) found that the largest motivational factor for Intensive English program students was the desire to communicate in English; similarly, Weger (2013) found that for Asian Intensive English program students, personal pride and a perceived increase in status that comes from mastering fluent communication in English were primary motivational factors. Studies by Aloiau (2001) and Komiyama (2009) suggest that intrinsic motivation is a factor for student success in these programs. Whereas, Broomhead (2013) argued that an increasing number of Intensive English program students view the acquisition of English as secondary to their goal of earning a university degree; therefore, Broomhead suggested that for these students, the English-only methodology employed by many Intensive English programs might not be appropriate for these students and leads to negative affect held by these students toward their participation in the program.

Dehghanpisheh's (1987) typology of Intensive English administrative models places programs into one of four types, conservative, traditional, bridging, or progressive, based on how students can enter and exit the program. An example of an Intensive English program that stood

outside Dehghanpisheh's (1987) typology was the one described by Janopoulous (1989), in which any student had the opportunity to audit any course in the university, regardless of his or her current English proficiency. On the other hand, Nakaprasit (2010) cited several common Intensive English program administrative practices reduced the flexibility of such programs to meet individual learning needs in the classroom.

A large body of research has been done that documented the marginalization of Intensive English programs in academia (Brown, 1998; Friedenber, 2002, 2009; Kaplan, 1971; Lin et al., 2004; Mahboob, 2003; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994). The concept of academic homelessness (Kaplan, 1971; Case, 1998; Thompson, 2013), referring to the fact that there is not one standard discipline in which Intensive English programs find themselves affiliated to as an academic unit, has been cited as contributing to such programs' marginalization on the campuses of many American institutions of higher education. Likewise, Staczek and Carkin (1984) argued that faculty and administrators of Intensive English programs often find themselves unable to provide meaningful input to policies concerning international students and their education due to several structural incompatibilities that exist between Intensive English programs and their hosting institutions. Several authors have suggested that the marginalization of Intensive English programs can be combatted through a combination of advocacy to raise awareness on campus concerning the issues facing Intensive English program students and faculty and increased professionalization of postsecondary ESL (Case, 1998; Fox, 1988; Staczek and Carkin, 1984; Stanley, 1994; Szasz, 2010); however, other authors have suggested that the marginalization of Intensive English programs originates from larger society inequities based on linguistic chauvinism, racism, and sexism that must be addressed both within and beyond academia before progress could be made in rectifying the exclusion Intensive

English programs face on campus (Bennett, 1996; Brown, 1998; Friedenberg 2002, 2009; Lin et al., 2004; Mahboob, 2003; Vandrick et al., 1994; Vandrick, 1995, 1997).

Chapter 3

Methodology**Introduction and Overview**

The purpose of this case study is to conduct a needs analysis (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; M. Long, 2005) so that the language learning needs of international students who possess a beginner (or false-beginner) level of English language proficiency (Council of Europe, 2001; Educational Testing Service, 2015) participating in an Intensive English program at an American college or university can be described and any potential influence marginalization has upon the program's willingness to fully accommodate their language learning needs be identified. This study followed an embedded single case design (Yin, 2014) with the unit of analysis being an Intensive English program. Two sub-units of analysis were (a) the individual students enrolled in the program, and (b) the administration and faculty of the program. For this study, the language learning needs of second language learners in the context of English for Academic Purposes, a sub-genre of English for Specific Purposes (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991), were understood to comprise two elements: target needs and learning needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Munby, 1978; Robinson, 1991); data were collected following a triangulation model (Yin, 2014) that used multiple methods to collect data from multiple sources in order to glean evidence concerning both target needs and learning needs in terms of the *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants* in each area as perceived by both the students and program administrators/instructors, following Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters' (1987) framework for English for Specific Purposes needs analysis. Pauline Robinson (1991), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Robert Jordan (1997), and Michael Long (2005) all agreed that multiple methods of data collection must be employed for needs analysis; they cited

questionnaires, interviews, observation, and the collection of relevant materials as common methods in which perceptions of language learning needs can be investigated. Due to the strong position taken in prior literature concerning needs analysis methodology, case study was selected as the mode of inquiry as both John Creswell (2013) and Robert Yin (2014) argued that the use of multiple sources of information is both a defining characteristic and strength of case study; therefore, the researcher selected a case study methodology, as it was a good fit for a study that incorporated needs analysis as part of its inquiry. Case study is well-known within the discipline of applied linguistics; according to Patricia Duff (2008), case study research is recognized by many applied linguists as “very productive and influential” (p. 36) in the field. As such, the study collected data through a variety of sources, including semi-structured open-ended interviews with program administrators/faculty members, focus group interviews with students, collection of relevant documents (*e.g.*, course syllabi, a researcher-constructed questionnaire designed to inform the interview and focus group protocols, end of term course evaluations, course materials and texts), and on-site observations. The collected data were used for analysis of the perception of the students’ *target situation*, *present situation*, and *learning situation* (Abdullah, 2005; M. Long, 2005; Munby, 1978; Richterich & Chancerel, 1980) through the framework of needs analysis proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987).

Considering that current trends in international student enrollment show that the population of beginner-level English language students to be steadily increasing (Institute of International Education, 2014b), the researcher believes that a better understanding of the language learning needs of beginner-level Intensive English program students will assist English language development program directors in higher education in improving the design and facilitation of Intensive English programs that serve, or intend to serve, beginner-level students.

In order to best describe the language learning needs of this population of international students, the inquiry of the study was guided by four research questions: (a) What are the academic English language learning needs as perceived by international students enrolled in beginner-level courses at an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States? (b) What are the academic English language learning needs of beginner-level students as perceived by the instructors and administrators of an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States? (c) In what ways can Intensive English programs affiliated with institutions of higher education located within the United States accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level international students? (d) In what ways, if any, does the marginalization of Intensive English program faculty and administration in academia influence the willingness of Intensive English program faculty and administrators to fully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level students?

This chapter describes the study's research methodology and addresses the following areas: (a) rationale for research approach, (b) description of the research sample, (c) summary of information needed, (d) overview of research design, (e) methods of data collection, (f) analysis and synthesis of data, (g) ethical considerations, (h) validation and trustworthiness, and (i) limitations of the study. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

Rationale for Case Study Methodology

The methodology of the study was an exploratory case study (Yin, 2014) in which the case was investigated using a triangulation model for data collection and analysis. This design was employed for two reasons; firstly, as Duff (2008) observed, case study research has enjoyed a long history of use within the discipline of applied linguistics, particularly in the field of

second language acquisition (SLA). The reason for this, according to Duff (2008), is that “SLA involves linguistic, cognitive, affective, and social processes. That is, it is an ongoing interplay of individual mental processes, meanings and actions as well as social interactions that occur within a particular time and place, and learning history” (p. 37). The current “prominence of case studies in applied linguistics” (Duff, 2008, p. 38) might lie in the fact that SLA meets all of the criteria of a *case* as defined by leading social science methodologists; that is, the processes involved in SLA are real-world, contemporary phenomena that are contextualized, or *bounded*, within a certain temporal, spatial, and cultural context (Creswell, 2013; Duff, 2008; Yin, 2014). Indeed, David Block’s (2003) identification of and advocacy for a *social turn* within SLA theory serves to highlight the applicability of qualitative methodology, in particular narrative inquiry, ethnography, and case study (Barkhuizen, 2013; Duff, 2008), to empirical study of the topic. Secondly, within the literature on needs analysis, case study is also recognized as occupying an important place. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Jordan (1997), and Robinson (1991) all cite case study as a method in which needs analysis data can be both collected and presented. Particularly, Maxine F. Schmidt (1981) argued that case study “provides information to support a process-oriented definition of needs” (p. 208) as through it one can glean information about both target needs and learning needs that cannot be gained via other methods. Mahmood Reza Atai and Ogholgol Nazari (2011), Rebeca Jasso-Aguilar (1999), and Michael Long (2005) have each presented arguments for the importance of data triangulation within needs analysis; Duff (2008) observed that triangulation was an advantage provided by use of case study methodology. With these two reasons taken together, it is not surprising that many needs analyses have been conducted as case studies. While examples exist of needs analysis having been conducted through purely quantitative survey methodology (*e.g.*, Rahman, 2012), many published needs

analysis studies have, at minimum, included at least one phase of qualitative interviews (focus group or face-to-face) to supplement collected questionnaire data (*e.g.*, Atai & Nazari, 2011; Cai, 2013; Deutch, 2003; Gea-Valor, Rey-Rocha, & Moreno, 2014; Jasso-Aguilar, 1999; Rattanapinyowong, Vajanabukka, & Rungruang Sri, 1988; Zohoorian, 2015).

Research Sample

Yin (2014) strongly argued against the use of the term *sample* in describing case study research, as the generalizations to be drawn are analytic, as opposed to statistical, in nature. Following Yin's (2014) recommendation, the study can be described as being one that explored a *critical case* (Yin, 2014), which explored the theoretical proposition that the marginalization of Intensive English programs, as academic units, in American institutions of higher education (Case, 1998; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994) might inhibit the willingness of these programs to fully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level students. As such, the selected case was bound within the context of a university-affiliated Intensive English program that operates as an academic unit on a campus in which at least 20 beginner-level international students were enrolled at the time of the study. As a student's level of English proficiency is usually determined from his or her score on whatever English language placement test (*e.g.*, Cambridge Michigan Language Tests) the institution administered upon the student's entry into the program (Kaplan, 1971), all international students enrolled in courses that comprise the beginners' band of the program were invited to participate. The site selected for the study had a total of 20 beginner-level students, divided between two classes, enrolled during the period data were collected from the site. These classes were taught by four instructors, who were assigned in pairs to teach one of the two levels; within a pair, one instructor was responsible for

teaching reading and writing skills and the other was responsible for teaching listening and speaking skills.

Overview of Information Needed

The study investigated an Intensive English program located on the campus of one institution of higher education located in the northern New England region of the United States. To develop a profile of the language learning needs of beginner-level students, in addition to investigating how marginalization might influence the willingness of the program to fully accommodate those needs, four research questions guided the inquiry of the study. The study's conceptual framework delineated the information that was needed to answer these questions into four categories: (a) contextual information, (b) demographic information, (c) perceptual information, and (d) theoretical information. An overview of the information that was needed to answer each research question is given in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Overview of Information Needed

Type of Information Needed	Information Needed	Data Collection Method
Contextual	Program background, history, structure, mission, vision, and leadership.	Document review, on-site observation
Demographic	Student: Age, gender, native language, country of origin. Faculty: Age, gender, years in program, employment status.	Demographic section of needs analysis questionnaire
Perceptual	Participants' descriptions and explanations of their perception of beginner-level student language learning needs.	Student: Needs analysis questionnaire, focus group interview Faculty: Needs analysis

		questionnaire, face to face interviews.
Theoretical	What is already known about Intensive English programs and language learning needs.	Literature Review
Research Question 1. What are the academic English language learning needs perceived by beginner-level international students enrolled in an Intensive English programs affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States?	<p>Why do they need English? How do they believe they will they use English? In what academic disciplines do they intend to use English? Who do they believe they will use English with? Where do they think they will use English? When do they believe they will use English? Why are they taking the course? How do they like to learn? What resources are they aware of that are available for their learning? Who are the learners? Where does the course take place? When does the course take place?</p>	Needs analysis questionnaire, focus group interview, on-site observation
Research Question 2. What are the academic English language learning needs of beginner-level international students as perceived by the instructors and administrators of an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States?	<p>What reasons do they believe their students need English? How do they believe their students will use English? In what academic disciplines do they believe their students will use English? Who do they believe their students use English with? Where do they think their students will use English? When do they believe their students will use English? What reasons do they perceive as to why their students take the course? What do they perceive as the way their students learn?</p>	Needs analysis questionnaire, face-to-face interview, document review, on-site observation

	<p>What resources have they identified as available for their students' learning? Who are the instructors? Where does the course take place? When does the course take place?</p>	
<p>Research Question 3. In what ways can Intensive English programs affiliated with institutions of higher education located within the United States fully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level international students?</p>	<p>How can the Intensive English program address the needs that are currently lacking in the program? What resources exist in the program to meet those needs?</p>	<p>Face to face interview, focus group interview, needs analysis questionnaire, document review, on-site observation</p>
<p>Research Question 4. In what ways, if any, does the marginalization of Intensive English program faculty and administration in academia influence the willingness of Intensive English programs to fully accommodate beginner-level international students' language learning needs?</p>	<p>Do the faculty and administration of the program perceive they are marginalized within their institution? If so, does this perception have an influence on the facilitation of course content by the program to beginners?</p>	<p>Face to face interview, on-site observation, document review</p>

Overview of Research Design

The study's research design consisted of 12 steps. The following list summarizes the steps that were used to conduct the research, and then each step is discussed in detail.

1. A comprehensive literature review was conducted in order to identify the major themes and issues present in prior research in the areas of Second Language Learning, English for Academic Purposes, and Intensive English Programs.
2. The researcher sought approval from Southern New Hampshire University's Institutional Research Board (IRB) to proceed with the research. The IRB approval process involved clearly outlining all the procedures that were intended to be used by this researcher during the course of the study so that adherence to ethical standards of

- research on human subjects was faithfully maintained. The IRB proposal specifically delineated how the researcher intended to secure informed consent from all the participants in this study, and how the confidentiality and dignity of all participants was to be protected. The informed consent documents used in the study are provided in Appendices A, B, and C. Furthermore, the proposal explained how the researcher intended to minimize the risk of harm for the study's participants, as well as how the study's findings would be of possible benefit to the participants and society at large.
3. If IRB approval were not granted, the study would have been adjusted to meet the requirements of the board; then, after adjustments, approval would have been sought again. As approval was granted on December 18th, 2015, with the proviso that a slight alteration be made to the wording of the consent forms, potential research sites were contacted by email, and a site was selected from willing programs.
 4. While potential research sites were investigated, a case study protocol (Yin, 2014) was constructed that delineated the objectives of the study, the procedures for data collection, the questions that guided the data collection, and a guide for the case study report. The protocol was intended to help increase the dependability of the study (Trochim, 2006; Yin, 2014).
 5. The selected site was visited four times during February 2016, by the researcher in order to conduct on-site observations, in which contextual information was gathered using a researcher-constructed observation protocol. Relevant documents were also collected from the site for analysis.
 6. On February, 25th, 2016, all participating beginner-level students ($n = 15$) were administered the student needs analysis questionnaire; likewise, the program's

- associate director and two faculty members were administered the faculty needs analysis questionnaire.
7. The questionnaire data were used to assist the researcher in providing a thick and rich description (Creswell, 2013) of both the students' and the faculty's perceptions of student language learning needs in terms of necessities, lacks, and wants (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Furthermore, the questionnaire data were used to inform the researcher when he formulated the focus group and face-to-face interview protocols.
 8. On April, 12th, 2016, eleven beginner-level students participated in a focus group discussion (Liamputtong, 2011) concerning their perception of language learning needs.
 9. During April and May 2016, standardized semi-structured open-ended interviews (Patton, 2015) concerning faculty perception of student language learning needs were conducted with the program's associate director and the four instructors who taught the beginner-level band of courses during the time of the study..
 10. Data collected from multiple sources (*i.e.*, on-site observation, document collection, focus group, and interviews) were analyzed within the theoretical framework of the study as part of a process of qualitative language learning needs analysis.
 11. After completing the needs analysis, the researcher identified the larger themes present in the case; the theoretical proposition that Intensive English program marginalization might inhibit the willingness of the program's administration and faculty to fully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level students was also tested by the researcher using the analytic methodology recommended by Yin (2014).

12. During August and September 2016, the findings of the study and the conclusions drawn by the researcher were shared with key participants, and the participants were invited to confirm the results as part of a process of *member checking* (Creswell, 2013, Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014) to ensure that the published findings were reflective of the researcher's perspective as well as those of the participants.

Literature Review

The study was informed by an iterative and selective process of literature review. Three major topics of literature were identified: Second Language Learning, English for Academic Purposes, and Intensive English Programs. The review was conducted so that the researcher possessed a better understanding of what international students need in order to successfully learn academic English, how Intensive English programs attempt to meet these needs, and how the marginalization of such programs within their hosting institutions might affect the willingness of these programs to fully accommodate beginner-level students' language learning needs.

IRB Approval

Following his committee's approval of his dissertation proposal, in December 2015, the researcher submitted a research proposal to his institution's review board that included the background and context of the study, a statement of the research problem, a statement of the study's purpose, and the research questions outlined in Chapter 1; a summary of the literature review included in Chapter 2, and the proposed methodology as described in Chapter 3.

Data Collection Methods

Yin (2014) asserted that the first principle of case study data collection is to use multiple sources of evidence, in which findings emerge from a convergence of evidence. Known as *data*

triangulation, the development of convergent evidence can increase the construct validity of the findings (Yin, 2014). Furthermore, in discussing methodological issues in needs analysis, Michael Long (2005) stressed the importance of triangulation by both source and method; as such, this study employed a variety of data collection methods, including questionnaires, document collection, a focus group interview with 12 student participants, four on-site observations, and standardized open-ended interviews (Patton, 2015) with faculty. Similarly, source triangulation was achieved by collecting data on student language learning needs from the perspective of *insider informants* (i.e., the students), in addition to the faculty's and researcher's own perceptions as *outsiders* (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; M. Long, 2005). The data triangulation model for the study is depicted in Figure 3.1, and Table 3.2 details the type of information collected by source and method.

Figure 3.1. Data Triangulation by Source and Method

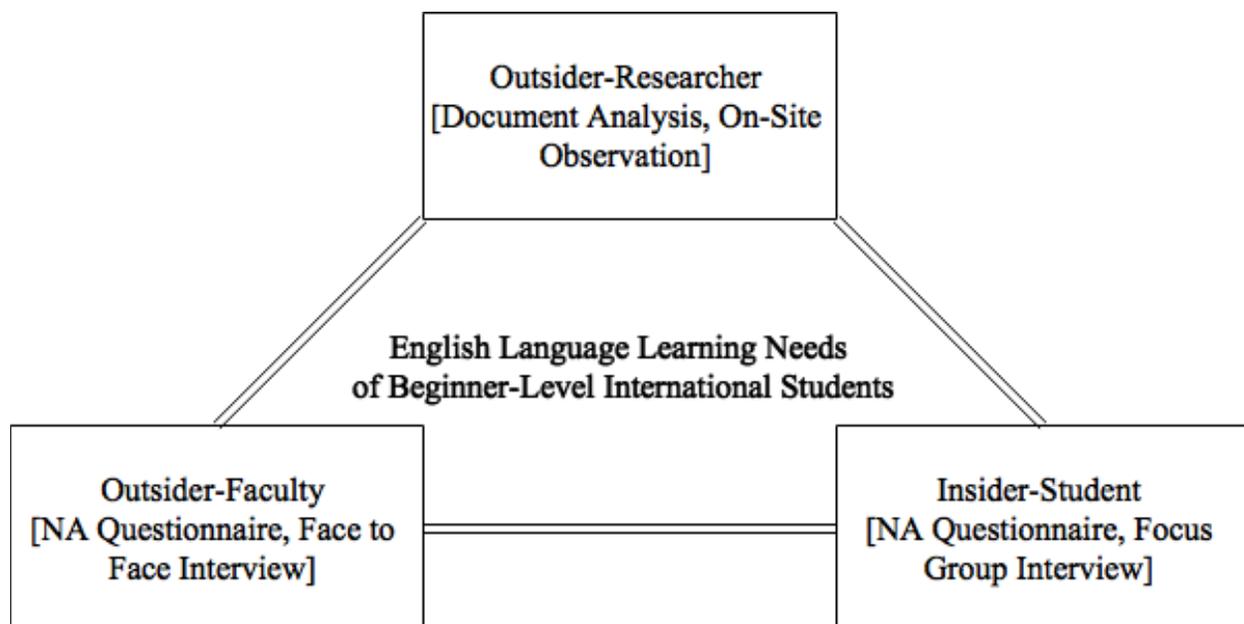


Table 3.2

Data Collection Matrix: Type of Information by Source

Information Source ¹	On-Site Observation	NA Questionnaire	Documents (e.g., syllabus, faculty bio, mission statement, etc.)	Face-to-Face Interview	Focus Group
Students	X	X			X
Carmen McClanahan	X	X	X	X	
Lori Belz	X	X	X	X	
Anna Trudel		X	X	X	
Linda Allen		X	X	X	
Arthur Ames	X	X	X	X	

The study was conducted in two phases.

Phase I – On-Site Observation, Document Collection, and Needs Analysis

Questionnaire

Needs Analysis Questionnaire

After IRB approval, the researcher-constructed needs analysis questionnaire was translated by certified translators with specialized training in academic, scientific, and technical translation into Arabic, Mandarin Chinese, Japanese, Brazilian Portuguese, Korean, and Spanish, as these represent the native languages of 84.3% of Intensive English program students currently studying in the United States (Institute of International Education, 2014b); due to the specific population of the selected research site, an additional translation of the questionnaire into French was required. The questionnaire was an adaptation of a needs analysis questionnaire developed by David Nunan and Clarice Lamb (1996), as well as incorporating information from R. R. Jordan's (1997) book, *English for Academic Purposes*, concerning linguistic tasks in the target

¹ All names are pseudonyms

context of postsecondary study. The questionnaire, designed to collect data concerning perception of student language learning needs within the framework of necessities, lacks and wants (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), was administered with the intent to inform the subsequent interview and focus group protocols. The English-language version of the questionnaire, as administered to the student participants appears as Appendix D; the version administered to the faculty participants appears as Appendix E.

After the questionnaire and consent forms had been translated into the appropriate languages, the researcher used *Intensive English USA 2015*, a directory of Intensive English programs published by the Institute of International Education (2015a), to gather contact information for college and university-affiliated programs in the northern New England area. From the information provided in *Intensive English USA 2015* (Institute of International Education, 2015a), the researcher determined that 16 programs met the criteria for the study. These programs were contacted by the researcher via his institutional email address and were invited to participate in the study; along with the invitation to participate in the study, a letter of introduction written by the chair of the Intensive English program affiliated with the researcher's institution was attached to the email. The text of the letter is provided in Appendix K. Of the 16 programs contacted, only five programs responded to the initial invitation to participate in the study, and of the five programs that responded to the initial invitation, only three had a large enough population of beginner-level international students to be considered for inclusion in the study. However, while the researcher attempted to maintain communication with all three programs with the intention of conducting a multiple case study, after having expressed interest in participating in the study, the directors of two of the programs elected to not respond to any further email messages sent by the researcher. Furthermore, no explanation was ever provided

by either director as to why they chose not to engage in further communication with the researcher. As such, the researcher was only granted access to one program in northern New England for the purposes of participant recruitment. As this program met all of the pre-established criteria for inclusion in the study, the researcher believed it appropriate to use this program as the site in which to situate the case study.

The researcher asked that the director of the chosen program introduce him and the study to faculty members who had contact with beginner-level students; the director forwarded this request to the associate director who then introduced the researcher and the purposes of the study to the four instructors who were currently teaching the beginner level band of courses in the program. Of the four instructors contacted by the associate director, two agreed to participate in answering the faculty version of needs analysis questionnaire and to allow the researcher to visit their classes to invite their students to participate in answering the student version needs analysis questionnaire. The associate director also agreed to answer the needs analysis questionnaire. As the two instructors each taught one of two sections (A and B) of the beginner-level courses, the researcher was able to invite the entire population of beginner-level students ($n = 20$) in the program to participate in answering the needs analysis questionnaire; of the 20 students, 15 agreed to participate. The questionnaires were administered to the faculty participants ($n = 3$) on the 9th and 11th of February 2016; whereas, the questionnaires were administered to the student participants ($n = 15$) on February 25th, 2016.

On-Site Observation and Document Collection

Concurrently, during this phase, the researcher began creation of the database for the case study (Yin, 2014) by collecting pertinent documents at the research site that contained information as to how the faculty of the program perceive beginner-level student language

learning needs. With the participation of the associate director and the two instructors who participated in this phase, the documents that were collected were course syllabi, course and program descriptions, and faculty biographies. The analysis of these documents was guided by the methodological recommendations for analysis of written material given in the publication, *Content Analysis*, which was published by the United States General Accounting Office in 1996. Furthermore, during this phase the researcher conducted four on-site observations of the research site and recorded descriptive information gleaned from observation and experiences, as well as his reflections on these experiences, with *fieldnotes* (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 2011). All four of these observations were conducted during the month of February 2016. The researcher followed the recommendations of Robert Emerson, Rachel Fretz, and Linda Shaw (2011) concerning how to take notes, or *jottings*, when engaged in fieldwork for qualitative social science research.

Phase II – Student Focus Group and Faculty Interviews

The second phase of the study consisted of one focus group consisting of 11 student participants, and standardized open-ended interviews (Patton, 2015) with four instructors and the associate director. The purpose of both the focus group interview and face to face interviews was to collect data concerning both student and administration/faculty perception of beginner-level students' language learning needs. The language learning needs framework proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), in concert with the study's research questions were used to develop the focus group and interview questions. Additionally, for the purposes of triangulation, the data collected from the international student participants from the needs analysis questionnaire were used to inform both the focus group protocol (Liamputtong, 2011; Patton, 2015) used to collect data from the students concerning their perception of their language learning needs and the interview guide used for the standardized open-ended interviews (Patton,

2015) conducted with the associate director and faculty members. Particularly, the focus group protocol and interview guide were shaped by the discrepancy, as revealed by the questionnaire data, between the students and faculty concerning the importance of speaking as both a target and learning need. Both the focus group and the interviews were recorded using a TASCAM DR-05 linear PCM recorder, which stores audio data digitally using the Waveform Audio File Format; the researcher used the audio recordings to transcribe the data into text verbatim using word processing software, so that the data could be qualitatively coded (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014; Saldaña, 2013) with the assistance of ATLAS.ti, a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) software package.

Focus Group

The participants of the focus group were gleaned from the population of the 20 beginner-level students in the program; students were informed of the focus group by their instructors, and the focus group was conducted on-site in an empty classroom during the students' lunch break on April 12th, 2016. The focus group was 1 hour in length and was moderated by the researcher, as it was judged his training in language education and applied linguistics provided him with the ability to clearly enunciate the questions in the focus group protocol and to appropriately negotiate meaning when miscomprehension arose (Filep, 2009; Liamputtong, 2011); the researcher was assisted by a colleague who recorded his observations during the focus group using a researcher-constructed observation instrument. The protocol used for the focus group is given in Appendix F.

Focus group interviewing (Liamputtong, 2011; Patton, 2015) was chosen as the data collection methodology for the international student participants as it provided three advantages in terms of this particular population. Firstly, it addressed the challenge of data collection from a

population that has limited proficiency in English. Face-to-face, in-depth interviewing through the medium of the students' native languages was not possible for this study due to the limited resources of the researcher; however, sociocultural theory (Lantolf, ed., 2000; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Mooney, 2013) suggests that while the level of proficiency in English the student participants currently possess might have prevented meaningful participation in the linguistic task of participating in an interview, such a task lies in the realm of what Lev Vygotsky would term the students' *zone of proximal development* (Lantolf, ed., 2000; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Mooney, 2013). As such, it is argued that the international students who participated in the focus group would be able to meaningfully participate in the study through the type of cooperative, peer-group interaction and assistance (Foster & Ohta, 2005) facilitated by focus group methodology (Liamputtong, 2011). Furthermore, JoAnn Crandall (1999) argued that much research has shown that cooperative approaches to language tasks in second language and foreign language settings not only reduces language anxiety, but increases both the quantity and quality of participants' talk. Similarly, qualitative methodology expert, Michael Quinn Patton (2015) asserted that the peer interaction facilitated through focus groups leads to a higher quality of data able to be gleaned by the researcher. Secondly, according to Cultural Dimensions Theory (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010), the native cultures of the potential international participants would rank lower in Individualism as compared to American culture, which Geert Hofstede, Gert Hofstede, and Michael Minkov (2010) found to be the most individualistic culture on Earth; furthermore, most cultures of the potential participants would rank higher in Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance compared to American culture. Taking into account such differences, cross-cultural research expert, Pranee Liamputtong (2011), as well as Patton (2015), have both suggested that group interview methods, such as focus groups, are more

appropriate to certain cross-cultural settings as the members of those cultures are most comfortable communicating in groups and might feel threatened if singled out by being invited to participate in a face-to-face interview. Several scholars have found that international students often experience marginalization on American campuses (Friedenberg, 2002, 2009; Vandrick, 1997; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994); Liamputtong (2011) noted that focus groups are often used in studies of marginalized populations as they provided the opportunity for members of these groups to express their perspectives on a topic through meaningful conversations that participants might not usually have. Likewise, Patton (2015) also commented on the positive effect that focus group participation can have upon study participants drawn from marginalized populations. Finally, the focus group interview was approximately 1 hour in length, following the recommendations given in *Focus Group Methodology* (Liamputtong, 2011), that focus groups run for no longer than 90 minutes.

Interviews

Four out of the five interviews were conducted on-site: three instructor interviews took place in an empty classroom, the associate director was interviewed in his office, and one instructor requested that the interview take place off-site. The interviews with Carmen McClanahan and Lori Belz were conducted on April 14th, 2016, the interview with Arthur Ames was conducted on the 1st of May, 2016, the interview with Anna Trudel was conducted on the 3rd of May, 2016, and the interview with Linda Allen was conducted on the 16th of May, 2016. The interviews were approximately 1 hour in length and followed the standardized interview guide given in Appendix G; however, as per the standardized semi-structured open-ended interview method (Patton, 2015), the researcher asked probing questions on relevant topics, when appropriate, which were not explicitly included in the interview guide. At the beginning of this

phase, two instructors and the associate director had agreed to participate in interviews; however, after completing interviews with the first two instructors, the researcher was encouraged by each of them to ask the other two instructors to participate. As a result of this ‘reverse’-*snowball* sampling (Creswell, 2013), the researcher followed the recommendations of the first three participants to invite the other two instructors and was able to secure two more interviews.

Data Analysis and Synthesis

During the entirety of the data analysis stage, the researcher employed ATLAS.ti, a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) software package, to assist in the recording and organization of the data. The researcher began the analysis with the use of three *provisional* (Gibbs & Taylor, 2010; Saldaña, 2013) codes, *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants*, as suggested by the framework for needs analysis developed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) that was incorporated into the study’s conceptual framework. *Descriptive* coding was also during the first-cycle, from which four more categories emerged from the data when examined through the theoretical lens employed in this study: *marginalization*, *resources*, *disposition*, and *demographics*. During the first round of coding, it was determined that the provisional codes needed to be supplemented with *subcodes* (Saldaña, 2013). The combination of the seven major code categories with an individual subcode lead to the use of 159 individual codes during the first-cycle of coding. The results of the primary rounds of coding were compared to gauge and improve intracoder reliability (Chen & Krauss, 2004); as the level of reliability was deemed to be acceptable by the researcher, a secondary round of coding was performed to identify *themes* (Creswell, 2013) from which analytic generalizations (Yin, 2014) were constructed. In addition, throughout the data analysis process, the researcher employed *analytic memoing* (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014) to help synthesize data into higher-order concepts.

After the data for the needs analysis were collected, it then underwent a primary round of analysis from which the results guided the inquiry of the second phase of analysis. During the second phase, the data from the needs analysis were used to test the proposition, which served as the fourth research question of the study, that Intensive English program marginalization might inhibit the willingness of such programs' faculty and administration to fully accommodate the needs of beginner-level students.

Ethical Considerations

Before beginning their inquiry, qualitative researchers in the social sciences must pay a great deal of attention to the ethical issues surrounding their proposed studies to ensure that their interactions with the participants in their studies are conducted in an ethical manner (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This is particularly salient for research in the fields of applied linguistics or language education as the topic of inquiry, language use, is a central aspect of one's identity (Markus, 2008). As such, irresponsible reporting has the potential to cause great distress to an individual (Duff, 2008) or an entire speech community (Olitsky & Weathers, 2005; Wolfram, 1998). In her discussion of ethical issues that could arise in applied linguistics case study research, Duff (2008) cited several controversial studies in the field that resulted in severely negative consequences for both the participants and the researchers as an example of the importance of ethical considerations in decisions of research design and data collection. The ethical issues related to the protection of the participants of the study were considered by the researcher through a *relational* ethical framework that views participants as collaborators in the research, of which avoidance of imposition in fieldwork, as well as, seeking confirmation from participant-collaborators in the reporting of results are reflective of the more equal relationship between primary researchers and participant-collaborators (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Employment of a relational ethical framework was of particular importance for this study as both students and faculty in Intensive English programs are a marginalized population (Case, 1998; Friedenber, 2009; Giroir, 2013; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Vandrick, 1995; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994) who often do not receive the opportunity to participate in academic discourse on equal terms with their peers. Similarly, because within this study there was the potential for critical discussion of power relationships, the relational ethical framework adopted by the researcher acknowledges the admonitions of Duff (2008), who warned that applied linguists who adopt an advocacy stance in their research must “tread very carefully so as not to be deemed libelous, slanderous, embarrassing, mean spirited or in violation of good-faith (trust) agreements between the researcher and participants” (p. 149). As such, the adoption of participant collaboration and confirmation practices was adopted as a way to ameliorate such concerns; indeed, in keeping with the ethical stance taken, the researcher complied with the request of two participants, in two separate incidents, to not incorporate and report certain collected data within the analysis of the study.

Because of the potential of emotional distress to participants in any research that examines language competency and use, the researcher employed several safeguards against any potential threats to the dignity and psychological well-being that might have been posed to the participants of the study. In particular, the study only recruited participants who gave uncoerced and voluntary consent to participate in the study after having been fully informed of the study’s purpose. As part of the recruitment process for the study, participants were be asked to give their written consent, and for non-native English speakers, consent forms were provided in their native language; copies of the consent forms can be found in Appendices A, B, and C. Also, as the ethical framework of the study sought to avoid unduly imposing upon potential participants, the

researcher took care to avoid data collection methods that would have unfairly asked too much of the participants' time or resources; as an example, the study followed Dörnyei's (2003) recommendation to limit questionnaires to four full pages of text. Furthermore, the results of the study were not disseminated until the participants had the opportunity to view and confirm the results of the data analysis; recommendations to adjust the analysis were negotiated by the researcher and the participants as equal collaborators. In addition, the study provided for the protection of its participants by keeping the names and other identifying characteristics of participating individuals and organizations strictly confidential; all research-related records and data were securely stored so that no one other than the researcher could access the material. For example, all physical records were kept in a locked file cabinet in the researcher's office on the campus of his institution; whereas, all digital records were stored on an encrypted external hard drive.

Finally, the researcher strongly believes that the problem surrounding the inquiry of study was worthy of investigation. There is much evidence to suggest that many Intensive English programs may not fully meet the language learning needs of low-proficient students (Al-Busaidi, 2003; Broomhead, 2013; Friedenber, 2002, 2009; Y. Long, 2013; Wilhelm, 1995; Wu, 2013); similarly, there is evidence to suggest that Intensive English programs are marginalized within American academia (Case, 1998; Friedenber, 2009; Giroir, 2013; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Vandrick, 1995; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994). Therefore, the researcher believes that the findings of the study add to our understanding of these phenomena and any possible connection between them, which may shed light on how to improve both the situation of both beginner-level students in these programs, as well as the faculty who teach them. Despite being a novice researcher, as a language educator and applied linguist with almost 15 years of

experience, the researcher believes that he possesses the expertise to have conducted this study under the close supervision of his dissertation committee.

Validation and Trustworthiness

Creswell (2013) noted that there exist multiple perspectives concerning validation in qualitative research. The validation paradigm of Lincoln and Guba, cited by both Creswell (2013) and William M. K. Trochim (2006), assesses the *trustworthiness* of a qualitative study using four criteria: *credibility*, *dependability*, *confirmability*, and *transferability*.

Credibility

According to Trochim (2006), credibility refers to how believable the results of the study are from the viewpoint of its participants. This criterion was of vital importance to the ethical framework in which the study was conducted, as the researcher sought the cooperation of the participants in both data collection and confirmation. Furthermore, the study employed triangulation of both source and method as a way to increase credibility (Creswell, 2013). It is believed that data triangulation provided a broader and deeper understanding of the case under investigation, which provided for a more accurate description of the perspectives of the participants. Likewise, member checking (Creswell, 2013; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014), in the form of having a summary of the major findings of the case study reviewed by key participants (Yin, 2014), was used as a validation strategy to enhance the credibility of the findings of the study.

Dependability

The criterion of dependability gauges how consistent the findings of the study are with the data collected (Trochim, 2006). Because the replication logic of quantitative research is often inappropriate or impossible for the types of phenomena qualitative research seeks to

investigate, qualitative researchers incorporate the instability of the context in which they conducted their research into their findings (Creswell, 2013; Trochim, 2006). As such, it is important for qualitative researchers to scrupulously document their procedures for data collection and analysis. Yin (2014) suggested that case study researchers could increase the dependability of their findings by employing a case study protocol and developing a case study database. As per Yin's (2014) suggestions, the researcher created a case study protocol to guide the data collection of the study before beginning the first phase of the research; furthermore, as data were collected, the researcher used the ATLAS.ti CADQAS package to assist in the creation of a case study database. Likewise, following the suggestions of Linda Dale Bloomberg and Marie Volpe (2012), the researcher constructed a data accounting log and several data summary tables that assisted with the organization and analysis of collected data.

Confirmability

As a criterion, confirmability measures the degree to which other researchers could corroborate the results of the study (Trochim, 2006). In other words, confirmability is a measure of how little or how greatly the biases in the researcher's perspectives affected the research's design, data collection, and interpretation and reporting of the findings. Yin (2014) argued that case study researchers can use three strategies to increase the confirmability of their results: *use of multiple sources of evidence*, *establishment of a chain of evidence*, and *review of draft case study report by key informants*. The study employed all three strategies in the following ways: (a) the data were collected using multiple methods (*i.e.*, interview, focus group, questionnaire, on-site observation, and document collection), as well as having been collected from multiple sources (*i.e.*, students, faculty, and the researcher as outside observer); (b) the case study report was written in such a way that the study's guiding questions, methodological procedures, and

collected evidence were clearly cross-referenced; and (c) before publishing the study, the researcher asked key collaborating participants to review the draft. The confirmability of the study was enhanced through the researcher's intentional adoption of a reflective stance (Creswell, 2013) throughout the research narrative of the study, so that the influence of the researcher's past experience with Intensive English programs upon his interpretation of the findings is fully explicated for the reader.

Transferability

When judging the trustworthiness of qualitative research, transferability is a criterion used to refer to the degree in which the results of a study can be generalized to other settings (Trochim, 2006). Creswell (2013) stated that a qualitative study's transferability is dependent on *thick description*; that is, the researcher must thoroughly describe the context of the study and its central assumptions (Trochim, 2006). Yin (2014) argued that case study researchers should employ theoretical propositions, *a priori* or *a posteriori*, which are confirmed or denied using the findings of the case study through analytic generalization. Yin (2014), defined analytic generalization as "a lesson learned, working hypothesis, or other principle that is believed to be applicable to other situations (not just other 'like cases')" (p. 68). Therefore, to enhance the transferability of the study's findings, the researcher provided a thick and robust description of the research's participants and its context. Likewise, the results of the study were used to test the theoretical proposition that marginalization of Intensive English programs might inhibit the willingness of such programs to fully accommodate the language learning needs of their beginner-level students in which analytic generalization could be made to Intensive English programs outside the research site and other forms of English language development programs in higher education in general.

Limitations

It is acknowledged that limiting conditions existed within the study's research methodology and design. The researcher gave consideration toward accounting for these limitations and the ways in which they were ameliorated. The first limitation was that the study investigated a single case (Yin, 2014). The researcher admits that while a multiple-case study could have provided more robust results by allowing for cross-case analysis (Yin, 2014), one rationale for choosing a single-case design for the study was that the researcher found great difficulty in finding a program willing to participate in the study; of the 16 university-affiliated Intensive English programs present in northern New England, only one both met the criteria of the study and agreed to participate. Taking this fact in concert with the fact that, according to the researcher's knowledge, this is only the third scholarly study after the studies by Saleh Salim Al-Busaidi (2003) and Thinan Nakaprasit (2010) that examined language learning needs in an Intensive English program, as well as the first study on this topic that was conducted in the United States of America, it is argued that the case studied was *revelatory* (Yin, 2014) in nature, as it observed and analyzed a phenomenon that has often proven to be inaccessible to outside researchers. As recently as 2013, Amy S. Thompson observed that a lack of research on postsecondary ESL programs existed and that a factor contributing to this was "the unfortunate phenomenon of the marginalization of these programs in the university setting" (p. 213). It is quite possible that the marginalization experienced by university-affiliated Intensive English programs within their institutions contributed to the reluctance of the programs contacted by the researcher to participate in the study. Furthermore, a second rationale for adopting a single-case design was that the researcher also sought to identify a *critical* case (Yin, 2014) in which the theoretical proposition that the marginalization of Intensive English programs in academia might

inhibit the willingness of such programs to fully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level students could be tested. In a similar vein, a possible critique of the study is that the participants invited to participate in the study were chosen non-stochastically; that is, the study employed *purposive sampling* techniques (Creswell, 2013). As noted earlier, Yin (2014) argued that qualitative case study research should aim for analytic generalization, as opposed to statistical generalization, and went as far as to argue against the appropriateness of using the term *sample* in describing case study design. Instead, Yin (2014) advocated for likening a case study to a single experiment, the results of which can be used to test hypothesized theoretical concepts, or to generate new ones that can be applied toward the understanding of similar cases. The analytic generalizations drawn from the study were girded by fully detailing the context and background of the study, as well as through *thick, rich description* (Creswell, 2013) of the case, so that readers can accurately gauge the transferability (Creswell, 2013; Trochim, 2006) of the study's findings to other contexts.

A second limitation lies in the fact that the international students participating in the study's focus group interviews communicated in English, which is not their native language. While cross-linguistic and cross-cultural research presents many challenges (Filep, 2009; Liamputtong, 2011), cultural and linguistic knowledge, cultural sensitivity, and member checking (Creswell, 2013; Liamputtong, 2011; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014), as well as the fact that the focus group protocol instrument and the analysis of the findings were informed by a questionnaire that was administered to the student participants in their native languages served as validation strategies in which potential distortions of linguistic data that could arise through translation were mitigated, as well as enhancing the overall credibility (Trochim, 2006) of the study.

The third limitation present in the study was the researcher's bias when analyzing the topic of inquiry as a result of his continued experience of regularly teaching courses in an Intensive English program. In addressing this sort of researcher bias, Creswell (2013) wrote of the need for qualitative researchers to adopt a tone of *reflexivity* when writing their research narratives; Creswell defined reflexivity as "the biases, values, and experiences that [a researcher] brings to a qualitative research study" (p. 216). Creswell (2013) argued that qualitative researchers should explicitly acknowledge the past experiences they have had with the phenomenon under study, and how those past experiences have shaped their understanding of the phenomenon. Creswell's (2013) recommendations were incorporated into this study's design by weaving the researcher's reflexive commentary throughout the research narrative, so that how the researcher's long acquaintance with Intensive English programs have influenced his interpretation of the data were made visible at all points in the study.

Summary

In this chapter, the researcher endeavored to provide a detailed description of the study's research methodology. Qualitative case study methodology (Creswell, 2013; Duff, 2008; Yin, 2014) was employed to explore the perception of language learning needs of beginning-level students held by students and faculty of one Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located somewhere within the northern New England region of the United States of America. Data concerning perception of language learning needs were collected from multiple sources as part a comprehensive needs analysis within a framework of learner needs, lacks, and wants (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) concerning their target situation and learning situation (Abdullah, 2005; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997). The results of the needs analysis were used to test the *a priori* theoretical proposition, developed from a

review of the literature, that marginalization of Intensive English programs in academia might inhibit the willingness of such programs to fully accommodate the language learning needs of beginning-level students. To conduct the inquiry of the study, five data collection methods were employed: questionnaire, face-to-face interview, document analysis, on-site observation, and focus group. Once collected, the data were analyzed in light of the findings of previous researchers as well as through the identification of emergent themes. As per the recommendations of Michael H. Long (2005) and Robert K. Yin (2014), triangulation by source and method was employed as a strategy to enhance the credibility and dependability of the study; thus, in addition to the five methods of data collection mentioned, data were gleaned from three sources: student participants, faculty participants, and from the researcher's own observations.

The conceptual framework that guided the inquiry of the study was constructed using information gathered from a review of the existing scholarly literature on the topic. The data collected for the study underwent a rigorous and systematic process of qualitative analysis, in which collected data were categorized into conceptual classifications known as *codes* (Creswell, 2013; Saldaña, 2012), after which, these codes were analyzed (Creswell, 2013) through a process of pattern matching (Yin, 2014) so that important themes within the data were identified. The taxonomy in which the thematic categorization was conducted was guided by the study's conceptual framework (Creswell, 2013; Ravitch & Riggan, 2012). The codes and themes identified within the data were used by the researcher to interpolate the data into larger units of meaning as part of a process of *data interpretation* (Creswell, 2013). The researcher then represented and visualized his findings (Creswell, 2013; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014) and engaged in various strategies of validation, including *member checking* (Creswell, 2013; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014), so that the reliability and validity of the study were confirmed

before publication (Creswell, 2013; Trochim, 2006). The intent of the study was to contribute to the understanding of the language learning needs of beginner-level students so that directors of Intensive English programs can better design and facilitate their programs to accommodate the needs of these students.

Chapter 4

Presentation and Analysis of Findings

Introduction

The purpose of this case study was to explore, within the context of one university-affiliated Intensive English program located in the northern New England region of the United States of America, the perceptions held by both international students and program faculty of the language learning needs of beginner-level students. The researcher believes that a better understanding of these students' language learning needs will allow educators and administrators in postsecondary English language development for international students to proceed from a more informed perspective when designing and facilitating beginner-level instruction in Intensive English programs. This chapter presents the key findings obtained from a focus group consisting of 11 beginner-level international students enrolled in an Intensive English program, one round of face-to-face interviews with four instructors as well as the associate director of the program, and data gleaned from field notes composed during four on-site observations and analysis of pertinent documents collected from the site. The data collection and analysis processes from which these findings emerged were informed by the results of a needs analysis questionnaire that was administered to both student and faculty participants prior to data collection. The results of the needs analysis questionnaire contributed to helping provide a thick description (Creswell, 2013) of the context of the case. In this chapter, the context of the case will be illustrated before the 29 major findings of the study are presented; afterwards, the analytical themes of the case that emerged from findings shall be presented, from which the four research questions that guided the inquiry of the study shall be addressed. The chapter concludes

with a summary that includes a discussion regarding the effect of researcher bias in interpreting the findings of the study.

Context

Setting

The case studied was bounded within the context of an Intensive English program known as the English Language Development Institute². The English Language Development Institute (ELDI) is an Intensive English program that is operated as an academic unit within its hosting institution, Miskatonic University (MU). MU is a large, urban, nonsectarian, first-tier research university whose primary campus is located in the center of Arkham, a major metropolitan area in northern New England. Following Elaine Dehghanpisheh's (1987) typology of administrative policies for international students, MU most closely follows the *conservative model*, with only two paths available for international students; *i.e.*, admission into a degree program that includes a freshman English class, or a provisional/non-admission path that requires Intensive English study in ELDI until the student demonstrates sufficient proficiency by earning an institutionally-determined prerequisite score on a standardized test of academic English proficiency (*e.g.*, Test of English as a Foreign Language [TOEFL], International English Language Testing System [IELTS], etc.).

As of 2016, ELDI has been in existence for 40 years and is currently organized as a division of MU's International Programs Center, which also houses the Office for International Student Services and MU's study abroad program. According to its mission statement, which is provided in Appendix H, ELDI is tasked with "[helping] international students and professionals succeed in their academic and work lives by offering programs that enhance their English

² The Intensive English program, its students and faculty, and its hosting institution are all referred to pseudonymously in order to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

language and cultural competence.” In keeping with its mission, ELDI offers a variety of full-time and part-time programs, both Intensive and non-Intensive, in English for Academic Purposes, English for Science and Technology, Business English, Legal English, and general academic preparation. The ELDI will also create custom programs of study for various clients.

Arthur Ames, the associate director of ELDI, stated that the institute serves approximately 600 to 800 students per academic year, with roughly 300 students enrolled during the Spring Term of 2016. The faculty and staff directory on the ELDI website included information for 65 faculty members and 14 administrative staff members. Administrative positions listed in the directory include the following:

- director,
- associate director,
- student life coordinator,
- academic programs manager,
- academic programs coordinator,
- senior staff coordinator,
- senior lecturer/lab assistant,
- academic advisor,
- recruitment and outreach specialist,
- admissions manager,
- foreign student advisor,
- senior admissions coordinator,
- senior program coordinator, and
- finance and administration specialist.

Physically, the institute is situated on the second floor of a 3-story building located along Church Street, the principal avenue of Arkham, and sits directly across from MU's student center; the building in which ELDI is located is attached to a building that houses the Office for International Student Services in which ELDI has an additional 12 classrooms in the basement. A National Public Radio station, which had started as an educational radio station run by MU, currently occupies the third floor of the building. A map showing the layout of the ELDI classrooms and offices occupying the second floor can be found in Appendix I.

Units of Analysis

Beginner-Level Students

At the time of the study, 20 students were enrolled in the two levels (known as "A" and "B") that comprise the beginner-level band of core courses offered by the program. These students were almost evenly split by sex, with 11 males and 9 females. Of these 20 students, more than half were Saudi Arabian in origin; a fact that, according to Arthur Ames, was representative of the demographics of the program as a whole. The second largest country of origin present in the population studied was China, with three students. Other countries of origin present in the population were Taiwan, Benin, Chile, Paraguay, Kuwait, and Oman. Out of the 20 students, 15 students participated in the first phase of research, which entailed answering a needs analysis questionnaire that had been translated into the students' native languages (an English version of the questionnaire is given in Appendix D), and 11 students participated in the second phase of research, which entailed participating in a focus group. From the responses to the demographic section of the questionnaire, it was determined that the mean age of the students represented in the sample ($n = 15$) was 25 years old, with the youngest student being 18 years old and the oldest being 41 years old. The questionnaire also revealed that the sample ($n = 15$) was

almost split evenly between undergraduate ($n = 7$) and graduate ($n = 6$) students, with two students choosing not to supply data concerning their status. From both the student focus group and interviews with faculty, it was found that the most common degree majors or graduate fields of study the students were interested in pursuing were Engineering, Business, and Law. Examples of other majors or fields of study students noted interest in pursuing were Microbiology, Interior Design, Nutrition, Human Resources, Management, and Mass Communications. Demographic information for the participants of the focus group is presented in Table 1.

Table 4.1.

Student Focus Group Participant Demographic Information

Name	Age	Sex	Country of Origin	Intended Degree or Major
Ali A.	22	Male	Saudi Arabia	Undeclared
Ali. B.	27	Male	Saudi Arabia	Pre-Law
Angelique	20	Female	Benin	Bachelor's in Accounting
Tahir	20	Male	Saudi Arabia	Bachelor's in Human Resources
Fadil	27	Male	Saudi Arabia	Master's in Management
Wei	20	Male	China	Undeclared
Esperanza	18	Female	Chile	Bachelor's in Business
Almas	24	Female	Saudi Arabia	Master's in Interior Design

Kalila	24	Female	Saudi Arabia	Master's in Microbiology
Farah	24	Female	Saudi Arabia	Master's in Communication
Mahir	31	Male	Saudi Arabia	Master's in Business

Program Faculty

For the purposes of this study, the instructors and administrative staff of the ELDI are collectively termed as *faculty*. The faculty participants in the study were all four instructors assigned to teach the beginner-level core courses during the academic term studied, as well as the program's associate director. Two instructors from levels A and B, Carmen McClanahan and Lori Belz, and associate director Arthur Ames participated in the first phase of the study. In the second phase of the study, the other instructors, Anna Trudel and Linda Allen, participated as well. During the time of the study, Carmen and Anna team-taught the level A courses whereas, Lori and Linda were teamed for the level B courses. Demographic information concerning the faculty participants is presented in Table 2; additionally, abbreviated biographies of the participants constructed by the researcher that incorporate data gleaned from biographical information listed on the program's website, face-to-face interviews, and demographic items on the faculty needs analysis questionnaire are given in Appendix J.

Table 4.2.

Faculty Participant Demographic Information

Name	Age	Sex	Employment Status	Highest Degree Earned
Carmen McClanahan	43	F	Full-Time	M.A. in TESOL

Lori Belz	46	F	Full-Time	M.A. in TESOL
Anna Trudel	49	F	Full-Time	M.Ed. with certificate in TESOL
Linda Allen	(40s?)	F	Part-Time	M.A.T. in Spanish and ESL
Arthur Ames	36	M	Full-Time	M.A. in Applied Linguistics and ESL

Researcher Reflection on Context

The context of this case was both familiar and new to the researcher. Within the context of ELDI, there were many things that were similar to the Intensive English program in which the researcher has taught for a period of eight years prior to the study. Like ELDI, the researcher's home program experienced a period of high Saudi Arabian enrollment; furthermore, the researcher's home program is also situated in its own building on campus. Additionally, the researcher's home program shares the mission of ELDI to offer courses in both English language and acculturation to both international students enrolled in their respective institutions and members of the outside community. The education and experience of the instructors in ELDI and the researcher's home program are comparable, with the overwhelming majority of instructors possessing at least a Master's degree in TESOL or a related field; likewise, the mean age of the instructors in the researcher's home program skews towards the mid-forties. Similarly, during the time that this researcher has been affiliated with his home institution, he has noticed that, with the notable exception of himself, the instructors commonly assigned to beginning-level courses in his home program tend to be women of similar age and experience to the instructors who participated in this case study, which is a characteristic of the majority of Intensive English programs in the United States (Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994).

There were, however, several differences between the respective programs. Both the student enrollment of ELDI and the number of faculty are approximately three times larger than at the researcher's home institution. Another difference in context is that the overwhelming majority of instructors in the researcher's home program are part-time, adjunct faculty whereas all but one of the faculty participants were full-time instructors or administrators. Furthermore, the prestige of ELDI's hosting institution, as a private, tier-one research university, is much greater than the hosting institution of the researcher's home program, which is a small, suburban, private, nonprofit teaching university, albeit with a large and increasingly well-known online division. As such, one difference between the two contexts is reflected in the fact that while both the researcher's home program and ELDI have a large number of students intending on entering into degree programs for Business, the researcher's home program does not offer any degrees in Engineering or the hard sciences, while prospective science and engineering students form a large proportion of ELDI's enrollment. Likewise, while the researcher's home program is an integral part of international student recruitment efforts, Arthur explained that ELDI is somewhat ancillary to MU's international student recruitment as the hosting institution's prestige ensures that it attracts the elite of the international student population who have little to no need for English language development prior to entry.

However, despite these differences, when conducting fieldwork at ELDI, the researcher felt at home, that is, the researcher was quite familiar with how ELDI operates as an academic unit within its hosting institution and what the goals of the program are. Similarly, both the student population and instructors struck a familiar chord. One scene that played out during an on-site observation that stood out as familiar to the researcher was the interaction between Lori and a student from Saudi Arabia who notified Lori that during the break, she was going to go to

her apartment to pick up a dish she made for the Kuwaiti National Day celebration being hosted by ELDI that afternoon. Lori informed the student that class would start in 10 minutes, and the student insisted that she would return before the start of class. The student eventually entered class 20 minutes late; from this, the researcher observed that the problems the international students in his program have in acculturating to American chronemics (Bruneau, 1980) were shared by at least one student in ELDI. Indeed, the interaction between Lori and the student was one that the researcher has had with his students numerous times during his career. Likewise, during the on-site observations, the researcher noticed that during class breaks, just like the students in his home program, the ELDI students would congregate in the hallways and common areas to converse with each other or to browse social media on their mobile computing devices. The friendliness and collegiality evident in the interactions the researcher observed between the ELDI students also reminded him of the general atmosphere of positive affect he has observed within his home program.

Because of the familiarity the researcher felt toward the context, he was acutely aware of the potential for researcher bias during data analysis. To deal with potential bias, the researcher employed *analytic memoing* (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014) for the purposes of critical self-reflection concerning his analysis of the case. During the data analysis phase, the researcher shared these memos with his committee and asked for their thoughts and reactions. Additionally, within the research narrative of the study, the researcher adopted a reflective stance (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2015), as well as reaching out to key participants to confirm the findings and conclusions of the study as part of a process of member checking (Creswell, 2013; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014).

Presentation of Findings

The four research questions of the study reflect its design. Using Robert K. Yin's (2014) typology for case study design, the current study followed a *type-2* design, in which the case of language learning needs of beginner-level students in an Intensive English program was bounded by the context of the ELDI, with the students and the faculty each conceptualized as an embedded unit of analysis. As such, the first two research questions were answered by findings developed through a comprehensive needs analysis that collected data on the perceptions of language learning needs from both the 20 students who were enrolled in the two courses that comprise the beginner-level band (embedded unit of analysis 1) and the four instructors and one administrator involved in the facilitation of those courses during the time of the study (embedded unit of analysis 2). The third and fourth research questions were answered through data from both units of analysis.

Student Perception of Language Learning Needs

As this study's research questions and theoretical framework incorporated the taxonomy of needs suggested by Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters (1987), the findings of the students' perceptions, which Hutchinson and Waters (1987) term as *subjective* needs, have been categorized as necessities, lacks, and wants for both their target situation and learning situation needs. The first research question was concerned with beginner-level international students' perception of their language learning needs; 13 findings emerged from the data collected to answer this question. Evidence was gleaned from focus group data, on-site observation, and document analysis, and the data collection and analysis was informed by the results of a needs analysis questionnaire administered to 15 student participants. Within the research narrative for this study, student participants' responses to focus group questions were edited for grammar and

clarity by the researcher when deemed necessary as a consequence of the participants' low proficiency in English. A summary of the 13 findings of the students' perception of language learning needs is presented in Table 4.3, and in-depth discussion of each finding follows the table.

Table 4.3.

Summary of Findings of Student Perceptions of Language Learning Needs

R.Q. 1: What are the academic English language learning needs perceived by beginner-level international students enrolled in an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States?	
a. What information do beginner-level students believe is necessary to know in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?	Finding 1: An overwhelming majority (9 out of 11 [82%]) of student participants indicated that speaking is the most necessary discrete language skill for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.
	Finding 2: Almost half (5 out of 11 [45%]) of the student participants expressed the opinion that acquisition of academic vocabulary is necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.
	Finding 3: Some (4 out of 11 [36%]) student participants cited competency in the social register of English as necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.
b. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students believe are necessary in their current learning situation in order for them to successfully learn academic English?	Finding 4: Almost half (5 out of 11 [45%]) of the student participants cited that they perceive a need to learn English because of its status as an international language.
	Finding 5: Almost half (5 out of 11 [45%]) of the student participants perceive an attitudinally active language learning style (i.e., communicative or concrete) as necessary for successfully learning academic English.
c. What necessary information do beginner-level students believe they lack in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?	Finding 6: A few (3 out of 11 [27%]) student participants believe they currently lack the necessary vocabulary and grammar to successfully function in an English-speaking academic institution.

	Finding 7: Some (4 out of 11 [36%]) student participants believe they currently lack necessary competency in the social register of English grammar to successfully function in an English-speaking academic institution.
d. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students believe are lacking in their current learning situation?	Finding 8: Evidence from the student questionnaire and field observations suggests that some students might perceive a lack of autonomy in their learning situation.
e. What information do beginner-level students want to learn about English?	Finding 9: An overwhelming majority (9 out of 11 [82%]) of the student participants desire information about how to improve their speaking proficiency.
	Finding 10: More than half (6 out of 11 [54%]) of the student participants desire information about how to improve their listening proficiency.
	Finding 11: A few (3 out of 11 [27%]) of the student participants indicated a desire for more information about grammar and academic vocabulary.
f. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students want in their current learning situation?	Finding 12: All (11 out of 11 [100%]) student participants expressed their desire to enter into a degree program in an American university.
	Finding 13: An overwhelming majority (9 out of 11 [82%]) of the student participants expressed a preference for an attitudinally active language learning style.

Target Situation Necessities

Finding 1: An overwhelming majority (9 out of 11 [82%]) of student participants indicated that speaking is the most necessary discrete language skill for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.

The findings of this study that relate to student participants' perceptions of language learning needs were drawn from data collected from the focus group and on-site observation; additionally, the findings were informed by the results of the needs analysis questionnaire. One of the most salient findings to emerge from the data was that an overwhelming majority of students identified information about how to improve their speaking skill as necessary for them

to know in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution. This finding was first brought to the researcher's attention during the first phase of research when 15 out of the 20 (75%) beginner level students in the program were administered the needs analysis questionnaire in their native languages. The questionnaire, which was adapted from one developed by David Nunan and Clarice Lamb in 1996, was designed to collect information concerning student perception of target need that would be used to inform the researcher's inquiry for the focus group during the second phase of research. The questionnaire was divided into three parts in which the first part asked the students to use a 5-point Likert scale to rank their belief of the likelihood that they would use English to accomplish a particular linguistic task in a context specifically identified as undergraduate or graduate study in an institution of higher education in which English is the medium of instruction. Most strikingly, the two highest ranked tasks were those that primarily involved speaking skill. From the student participants' ($n = 15$) responses on the questionnaire, it was found that the items "participating in class discussion" and "giving an oral presentation" were ranked most highly in terms of likelihood the participants would use English when performing the linguistic task. The student participants' responses are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4.

Student ($n = 15$) Responses to Part I of Needs Analysis Questionnaire Ranked by Mean

Rank	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	Participating in class discussion	4.13	.83
2	Giving an oral presentation	3.80	1.21
3	Taking written examinations	3.73	1.22
4	Using the Internet for research	3.67	1.35
5	Understanding spoken instructions	3.53	.99
6	Taking notes during lectures	3.50	1.40
7	Understanding written instructions	3.47	1.06

7	Using a dictionary	3.47	1.13
9	Listening to lectures	3.40	1.45
10	Asking questions during lectures	3.13	1.25
10	Taking notes while reading	3.13	1.19
10	Using a computer for word processing	3.13	1.30
13	Taking oral examinations	3.00	1.41
14	Reading an academic text	2.87	1.41
15	Conducting survey research	2.33	1.35
16	Recording the results of a laboratory experiment	2.29	1.38
17	Summarizing or paraphrasing information from an academic text	2.20	1.15
18	Writing essays, reports, theses and dissertations, or research papers	2.07	1.44
19	Using a library card catalog	1.93	1.03

This preliminary evidence was supported by responses to focus group questions that revealed the students' perception of the necessity of developing proficiency in speaking to accomplish tasks in the target situation. Indeed, the standard deviation of the most highly ranked item, "participating in class discussion" was .83, which suggests the needs analysis questionnaire participants were mostly in agreement as to the likelihood of it being the primary linguistic task in the target situation. While not a perfect match overall, the responses to the questionnaire were similar to the ideas expressed during the focus group. The high ranking given to speaking tasks in the questionnaire was reflected by the fact that all but one participant in the focus group ($n = 11$) specifically cited speaking proficiency when referencing the skills needed in the target context of university study. For example, when asked what language skills were necessary to be a successful university student in an American institution, Kalila stated that "you need to know grammar, and you need to speak a lot"; she added that she felt speaking was the most important skill to learn because "I can learn how to interact with people." Similarly, Wei stated that he thought developing proper "intonation is very important" for an international student studying in an American university. Likewise, when asked to prioritize the four discrete language skills, Almas ranked speaking as the most important skill, explaining that "we have an accent, and I

think we need more practice to speak in a good accent.” The focus group participants’ responses concerning their perception of the most necessary discrete language skill for the target situation are given in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Focus Group Participant Responses: Most Necessary Discrete Language Skills in Target

Situation

Name	Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
Ali A.	X	X	X	X
Ali B.		X		
Angelique	X	X		
Tahir	X	X		
Fadil	X	X		X
Wei	X	X	X	X
Esperanza	X			X
Almas	X		X	
Kalila	X			X
Farah	X	X	X	
Mahir	X			X

As can be seen in Tables 4 and 5, despite their perception of the primacy of speaking tasks in the academic context, in both the questionnaire and focus group, the student participants also identified other necessary academic linguistic tasks that primarily involve the other three discrete skills. Overall, the order in which the focus group participants ranked the other discrete skills (*i.e.*, listening, writing, and reading) matches the order in which the skills were ranked on Part I of the needs analysis questionnaire. An example can be found in the fact that on needs analysis questionnaire, “taking written examinations” was the third highest ranked target task by likelihood, and similarly, a slight majority (6 out of 11 [54%]) of the focus group participants identified academic writing skills as necessary for functioning in an academic context. Indeed, during the focus group, Kalila specifically cited writing as a task she imagines she will do once she begins her university study, when she explained that she will use her English “for research,

academic writing, and speaking with my advisor.” Similarly, academic listening was also identified as a necessary skill by the student participants; on the questionnaire, the items “understanding spoken instructions” and “taking notes during lectures” were ranked in fifth and sixth place, respectively. These items’ relatively high ranking on the questionnaire do match the results of the focus group, in which a majority (7 out of 11 [63%]) of focus group participants identified academic listening as a necessary skill. Finally, 36% of focus group participants (4 out of 11) identified academic reading as a necessary skill; for example, when asked what she thought she would use her English for in university, Almas explained that she believed she will use English to “read books, study, and do homework.” The data from the focus group concerning academic reading do seem to support the findings of the questionnaire; on the needs analysis questionnaire, “understanding written instructions” was ranked in 7th place ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 1.06$) and “Reading an academic text” was ranked in 14th place ($M = 2.87$, $SD = 1.41$)

Finding 2: Almost half (5 out of 11 [45%]) of the student participants expressed the opinion that acquisition of academic vocabulary is necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.

A number of focus group participants identified academic vocabulary as a necessary target need. Acquisition of academic vocabulary was often cited as a necessity to accomplish other academic linguistic tasks. Three responses typified this perception: first, Kalila’s belief that students “should learn more academic vocabulary about [their] major” in order to write about what they know; second, Mahir’s belief that “when I talk with my professor or teacher, I need to use academic vocabulary”; and third, Farah explained that listening skill was necessary for her development of academic vocabulary, stating, “[through] listening, I can get many vocabulary words, and know how they are spelled,” which she then uses when writing academic

papers or giving presentations in her classes. While Farah did not expound upon how hearing an English word can help her understand how it is spelled, it is possible that she is referring to the increased phonemic awareness that has been shown to develop from increased oral (*i.e.*, listening and speaking) language proficiency (Yeung, Siegel, & Chan, 2013).

Finding 3: Some (4 out of 11 [36%]) student participants cited competency in the social register of English as necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.

Outside of the data concerning the participants' perceptions of the necessity of the four discrete EAP language skills (Jordan, 1997), during the focus group, a few participants expressed their opinion that beginner-level students need instruction in social English as well as academic English in order to function effectively on an English-speaking campus. For example, when asked her opinion on whether conversational, everyday English or academic English was more important to learn, Farah explained that she felt both were important to learn as "in our [everyday] life we need to learn to talk in English, as well as in university, as it's important for learning information." Additionally, Almas expressed her opinion that "both [academic and social English] are important, but everyday English is more important for us to learn, as we're beginners. We should learn how to talk with people on the street, in restaurants, and in other situations, in addition to university study; learning [everyday English] helps us with [academic English]." Mahir noted that studying abroad in the United States provides him with both ample opportunity and necessity to practice English speaking in an immersive environment, stating, "Now, I need to learn more English. When I went to university [in Saudi Arabia], I didn't study English [speaking], grammar, or reading. I just studied [academic English]; however, studying here gives me a good chance to talk with people when I go to the gym with my friend or when I

go to the store.” Esperanza observed how it was necessary for her to use English outside of class on a daily basis: “After class, I always go out with my classmates and I need to speak English with them. I always use English when I watch movies with them.” During the focus group, Esperanza also explained how she needed to speak English with her roommates, as both of them are Anglophone Americans. Similarly, both Angelique and Wei mentioned that they regularly socialize with American friends outside of class, and, as such, need to speak English in these social situations. Ali B. stated that he found that he needed to use his social English daily as he eats in restaurants on a daily basis.

The saliency of social English in the present situation of the participants was also observed by the researcher during his on-site visits to the ELDI; during all four visits to the site, the researcher recorded in his field notes that the common areas in both buildings that host ELDI classrooms were active with groups of students socializing in between classes. While some of the groups observed were monolingual, many of the groups were cross-cultural and used English as the medium of communication. Furthermore, on two separate visits to the site, the researcher observed that the lobby/common area of the main ELDI building was being used to host a cultural celebration during which the researcher observed many cross-cultural interactions conducted through the medium of English. During the first on-site visit by the researcher, this observation was confirmed by one faculty participant, Lori, who when asked about the common area, stated that it "brings us together" and that the students use the area "like a living room."

Learning Situation Necessities

Finding 4: Almost half (5 out of 11 [45%]) of the student participants cited that they perceive a need to learn English because of its status as an international language.

While all 11 of the students who participated in the focus group expressed their desire to earn a degree from an American institution of higher education, during the focus group discussion, the context of global English was cited by six participants as also necessitating proficiency in the language. An example of this was found in Esperanza's explanation of why she felt she needs to learn English; as a denizen of Easter Island, Chile, she explained that "[we] have tourists all year around, so you need to speak English." In response to the same question, Angelique stated that "English is the first language of international languages; when people travel to other countries, they can communicate in English." Kalila agreed with this sentiment, adding that without English she "can't learn more from other cultures, and can't interact with other people ... the English language is now very important for learning new information." Whereas Esperanza, Angelique, and Kalila discussed global English as a vehicle for greater intercultural communication and interaction, other students identified the global English context as necessitating English proficiency for the purposes of career opportunity and advancement. During the focus group, Tahir said, Farah agreed with Tahir, adding "[learning] English is very important because I can get a great job. English is the first language in the world, so it's very important to succeed [in learning English]." Following-up on Farah's comment, Mahir explained English proficiency was necessary for a lot of skilled jobs in Saudi Arabia.

Finding 5: Almost half (5 out of 11 [45%]) of the student participants perceive an attitudinally active language learning style (i.e., communicative or concrete) as necessary for successfully learning academic English.

According to Ken Willing (as cited in Wong & Nunan, 2011), the communicative learning style and the concrete learning style are classified attitudinally as *active*. A learning style consists of a set of preferred language learning strategies (Wong & Nunan, 2011); the strategies that define the communicative style include learning by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in the target language, watching television in the target language, using the target language outside of class, learning new words by hearing them, and learning through conversation (Wong & Nunan, 2011). The concrete style consists of learning through playing games, looking at pictures, watching films and videos, listening to audio, talking in pairs, and practicing the target language outside of class (Wong & Nunan, 2011). Examples of both of these styles were cited by the focus group participants as conducive for their English learning. In particular, the perception of speaking proficiency as a necessity in the learning situation was evidenced by several responses by focus group participants. During the focus group, when asked to rank the four discrete language skills by relative importance, Angelique at first stated her belief that all four skills were equal in importance; however, she then amended her comment to describe a causal relationship between the skills, ranking oral language skills over written language skills: “If you can’t speak, [then] you can’t listen. If you can’t speak or listen, [then] you can’t read or write.” Likewise, Wei agreed with Angelique’s assessment that all four skills were of equal importance, but he also hedged his statement in a similar manner: “I think if your speaking is good, you can learn reading, writing, and listening quickly.” Finally, when asked about the consequences of not successfully learning English, Kalila stated, “I can’t learn more

about other cultures, and I can't interact with other people; I think English is now very important for learning new information.”

Similarly, almost half of the focus group participants expressed their belief that their learning situation should provide opportunities for interaction with either native speakers of English or, at least, other international students with a higher level of English proficiency than they currently have. In Part II of the needs analysis questionnaire, the item “I like to practice [English] outside of the classroom” was ranked by the students in 11th place out of 24 items ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.10$). The result for this item on the questionnaire was supported by several responses given during the focus group, in which participants provided examples of how out-of-classroom native speaker interaction helped them develop their English language proficiency. One example is detailed in the following exchange between the researcher, Almas, and Wei:

Almas: I think if you live with an American family, then you learn [English] fast.

Researcher: Like Wei? Wei is doing a home stay; he's living with an American family.

Almas: Yes, I think that's good.

Researcher: Wei, do you like your home stay?

Wei: Um, so-so.

Researcher: So-so? Is it helping your English?

Wei: Yes.

Researcher: What do you not like about it?

Wei: I think the most important thing is that the house isn't kept clean.

While Wei would have preferred to have more sanitary accommodations, it can be seen from the exchange that both Almas and Wei recognized the opportunity for language learning provided by the situation. Another example was provided by Esperanza who cited her experience with a

service learning project as a method for improving one's English, "because you can speak with [other] student[s] who speak English very well." When asked if the experience helped her improve her English, Esperanza responded emphatically and affirmatively. Similarly, Kalila gave the example of her interaction with the patients at her husband's dental clinic, "Sometimes I talk with my husband's patients [in the] waiting [room]. They help me talk [better]." An additional example was provided by Farah, who cited her interaction with an American friend whose spouse is Moroccan, "Her name is [Dina³] and her husband's from Morocco. She wants to learn about his culture. ... So I teach her and she teaches me English." Indeed, only one of the 11 focus group participants, Fadil, indicated that he didn't have access to a native speaker outside of the classroom. In the six months that Fadil had been present in the United States, he had yet to successfully develop a relationship with a native speaker; nevertheless, he strongly expressed his desire to regularly interact with a native speaker of English that would facilitate naturalistic, out-of-classroom language learning.

Target Situation Lacks

Finding 6: A few (3 out of 11 [27%]) student participants believe they currently lack the necessary vocabulary and grammar to successfully function in an English-speaking academic institution.

Concerning lacks in the target situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), four focus group participants expressed the perception they did not currently possess enough academic vocabulary, knowledge of grammar, or both, to successfully function in the context of university study in the United States. During the focus group, Kalila commented,

³ A pseudonym

I think we need more academic vocabulary, more information about my major, and more grammar because we should write academically. I should learn more vocabulary about my major. My major is microbiology; I should learn more vocabulary about bacteria, or fungi, or blood, so I can learn more about how I can write about my major. (Kalila)

On the other hand, Tahir connected his lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge to his speaking ability, stating “I need speaking, more vocabulary and grammar; because when I know grammar, I can speak well.” Similarly, Mahir commented “I need to study more vocabulary, but academic words, because when I talk with my professor or teacher, I need to use academic vocabulary.”

Finding 7: Some (4 out of 11 [36%]) student participants believe they currently lack necessary competency in the social register of English grammar to successfully function in an English-speaking academic institution.

The seventh finding of the study originates from focus group data that revealed the participants’ perceptions as to the necessity of social English for effective functioning on campus; data gleaned from the participants’ focus group contributions suggests that a few of the participants believe they lack the prerequisite level of proficiency in social English that would allow them to navigate life on campus and outside. For example, one focus group participant, Ali B., expressed that his lack of ability in social English prevented his effective functioning as a student on campus; he stated that “we need, but we don’t have, an idea about how you learn English at this school. How to start living in English: talking to friends or going to restaurants.” Likewise, Tahir indicated that he felt his lack of proficiency in everyday, conversational English inhibited his ability to take advantage of the naturalistic, out-of-classroom language learning opportunities available to him, “I have four or five friends [whom I can speak English with] ...

But I don't speak as good [as they] (laughs); I don't speak [to them because I'm] sometimes shy." When asked if his friends volunteer to help him with his English, Tahir stated that he doesn't request help from them out of shyness.

Learning Situation Lacks

Finding 8: Evidence from the student questionnaire and field observations suggests that students might perceive a lack of autonomy in their learning situation.

Data gleaned from the student responses to parts II and III of the questionnaire inform the finding that the student participants might perceive a lack of autonomy (Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Nunan, 1988; Wong & Nunan, 2011) in their learning situation gleaned from data collected from on-site observation. Student responses to part II of the questionnaire are given in Table 4.6; whereas, student responses to part III of the questionnaire are given in Table 4.7.

Table 4.6.

Student (n = 15) Responses to Part II of Needs Analysis Questionnaire Ranked by Mean

Rank	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	I like the teacher to explain grammatical rules	4.80	.56
2	I like the teacher to assess my progress for me	4.67	.49
3	I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes	4.53	.83
4	I like the teacher to explain the objectives of the lesson to me	4.33	.82
5	I like the teacher to explain the meaning of new words	4.27	1.33
5	I like to assess my own progress	4.27	.80
7	I like the teacher to give reasons for what we are learning and how we are learning	4.07	1.10
8	I like to learn by playing games in class	3.86	.95
9	I like to find the meaning of new words myself	3.80	.77
10	I like to help make decisions about what we will learn in class	3.79	1.05
11	I like to practice outside of the classroom	3.73	1.10
12	I like to learn by listening	3.67	1.05
12	I like to learn by reading	3.67	1.18
14	I like to write everything down	3.64	1.22

15	I like to be responsible for my own learning	3.60	1.12
15	I like the teacher to let me find my own mistakes	3.60	1.40
17	I like to work in pairs	3.53	.83
18	I like to work in small groups	3.47	.64
18	I like to work with the whole class	3.47	1.06
20	I like when the teacher makes all the decisions about how we will learn	3.40	1.50
20	I like when the teacher makes all the decisions about what we will learn in class	3.40	1.30
22	I like to study by myself	3.20	1.15
23	I like to figure out the grammar rules myself	2.93	1.03
24	I feel embarrassed when the teacher asks me to speak in front of the class	2.13	.99

Table 4.7.

Student (n = 15) Responses to Part III of Needs Analysis Questionnaire Ranked by Mean

Rank	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	The reasons for learning certain things are explained to us	3.80	.86
2	The objectives of the lesson or unit of work are explained to us	3.73	.88
3	We are helped to set our own objectives	3.27	.96
3	We are encouraged to practice and learn outside of the classroom	3.27	1.39
5	The reasons for learning in certain ways are explained to us	3.13	1.06
6	We are given opportunities to make choices about how we will learn	2.93	1.22
6	We are given opportunities to assess our own progress	2.93	.92
8	We are given opportunities to choose the content of the lessons	2.67	1.40

In part II of the questionnaire, which was designed to collect data concerning perception of learning situation wants, the item “I like to assess my own progress” was ranked in 5th place out of 24 ($M = 4.27$, $SD = .80$) by the students in terms of agreement, the item “I like to help make decisions about what we will learn in class” was ranked 10th out of 24 items ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 1.05$), and the items “I like when the teacher makes all the decisions about how we will learn” ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.50$) and “I like when the teacher makes all the decisions about what we will learn in class” ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.30$) were ranked 20th out of 24 items. However, when asked of

their perceptions of their current learning situation in part III of the questionnaire, the students ranked the item “We are given opportunities to choose the content of the lessons” 8th out of 8 items ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 1.40$); whereas, the items “We are given opportunities to assess our own progress” ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .92$) and “We are given opportunities to make choices about how we will learn” ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 1.22$) were both ranked 6th out of 8 items.

While anything related to learner autonomy as a language learning need was not discussed during the focus group, it was a topic of discussion during the first on-site observation conducted by the researcher. The following field notes were composed by the researcher during the observation,

When [Carmen] reached Part III of the survey, she spoke aloud -- half to herself and half to me -- that she gives higher-level students autonomy, but can't give lower-level students autonomy. From her expression, I gathered that she felt student autonomy was a good thing and she was conflicted. After [Carmen] and [Lori] had finished the questionnaire, I took the opportunity to ask them some questions as part of a debriefing process. The first thing I asked them about was [Carmen]'s strong reaction to the third part of the questionnaire. [Carmen] acknowledged that she believed student autonomy to be a positive thing; however, she also stated her belief that "the main thrust of teaching is to gain trust." As such, she explained she felt concerned that learner autonomy in the beginner-level classroom threatens this trust as she believed students at this level need a sense of teacher control. [Lori] stated that she believed that student autonomy, which she defined as taking responsibility for learning, is part of the acculturation process for international students. In this light, [Lori] explained that she believed part of her job with beginner-level students is to train them to be autonomous learners; she gave the example

of a student in her class who forgot to bring his textbook. She dealt with this situation by stating to him "You forgot your book; what are you going to do?" [Carmen] concurred with [Lori]'s observations and explained that a big part of what she does in the first half of the semester is acculturating her students to the norms of university life and learning. Lack of student autonomy was also mentioned during the face-to-face interview conducted with Carmen. When describing her instructional philosophy, Carmen stated that she attempts to provide her beginning-level students with varied activities during a lesson. The researcher asked her if she would describe this as "buffet-style"; however, Carmen disagreed with that metaphor, explaining "not buffet style because I don't let them choose. It's like a nine course meal style."

The student responses to the questionnaire suggest that Carmen and Lori's perceptions of beginner-level students trending to an authority-oriented learning style (Wong & Nunan, 2011) to be accurate; indeed the first and second most highly ranked items on Part II "I like the teacher to explain grammatical rules" ($M = 4.80, SD = .56$) and "I like the teacher to assess my progress for me" ($M = 4.67, SD = .49$) suggest a high level of agreement among the students for an authority-oriented (Wong & Nunan, 2011) classroom. However, as can be seen in the student responses on part II, a preference for an authority-oriented learning style (Wong & Nunan, 2011) does not necessarily entail a want for complete domination by the authority in the classroom. In summary, the questionnaire results suggest that the student participants might view the instructor's role as that of an expert who disseminates knowledge and evaluates student progress, yet, from their responses to the items, they also seem to desire to have some input in what they learn and how it is taught.

Target Situation Wants

Finding 9: An overwhelming majority (9 out of 11 [82%]) of the student participants desire information about how to improve their speaking proficiency.

During the focus group, six out of the 11 participants specifically stated that speaking was the most important skill to them; students' desire for increased speaking proficiency is also supported by the data from which the first, fourth and fifth findings of the study emerged. For example, related to the fourth finding of the study, Esperanza stated, "If I speak English, I can help my father because he has a hotel [on Easter Island] and I can work with him." Likewise, it can be argued that Angelique's and Wei's identification of speaking proficiency as a necessity in the learning situation, as detailed in the fifth finding, entails a desire to improve their skill in speaking so that they might more effectively function in the learning situation. Additionally, Farah indicated that she desired to acquire more knowledge concerning academic vocabulary and grammar as she felt both improve her speaking proficiency.

Finding 10: More than half (6 out of 11 [54%]) of the student participants desire information about how to improve their listening proficiency

There are several pieces of evidence that suggest many of the student participants want to learn how to improve their skill in listening comprehension; for example, the students' ($n = 15$) responses to the questionnaire reveal that in the target context of postsecondary study in an American university, they perceive three likely academic tasks that primarily call upon listening proficiency to accomplish: "understanding spoken instructions" ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .99$), "taking notes during lectures" ($M = 3.50$, $SD = 1.40$), and "listening to lectures" ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.45$). Furthermore, during the focus group, instruction in how to improve one's listening proficiency was specifically mentioned by six individuals: Ali A., Ali B., Angelique, Wei, Kalila and Farah.

When asked which of the four discrete language skills was the most important, Ali A. was the first of the group to respond, emphatically stating “Listening. I know it’s listening.” While Ali A. didn’t elaborate on why he felt listening was the most important skill, as mentioned in Finding 2, Farah’s desire to improve her listening skill seemed to be connected to her perception of the receptive language skills’ (*i.e.*, listening and reading) utility in vocabulary acquisition. Likewise, Kalila justified her desire for more information about listening in terms of its utility in developing other skills, stating her perception that beginner-level students improve the other discrete language skills through listening.

Finding 11: A few (3 out of 11 [27%]) of the student participants indicated a desire for more information about grammar and academic vocabulary.

Related to the perception of a lack of necessary grammar and academic vocabulary knowledge identified in Finding 7, four focus group participants specifically expressed the opinion that they want more grammar knowledge for the target situation. While analysis of the focus group transcript revealed that the word “grammar” was spoken 16 times during 51 minutes of discussion, the word was only used by Farah, Kalila, Tahir, and Ali B.; in addition to Tahir’s comments that were already explicated in Finding 7, the desire for explicit grammar instruction was expressed by the participants in various ways. For example, Farah specifically cited grammar books as a resource she uses to learn English, adding “I love grammar”; likewise, Farah explained, “I need more grammar. Because when I [know] grammar, I speak well.” On the other hand, Kalila expressed her desire for “more grammar because we should try ... academic writing.” Ali B. explained that he needed information about grammar and vocabulary for the purposes of earning a high enough score on the IELTS so he might gain admittance into a program of study at an American university.

Learning Situation Wants

Finding 12: All (11 out of 11 [100%]) student participants expressed their desire to enter into a degree program in an American university.

Evidence for a strong desire on the part of the participants to enter into an English-medium program of higher education was first gleaned from the researcher's field notes. When speaking with Arthur, the associate director of the program during the researcher's second on-site visit, the researcher was informed that approximately two-thirds of ELDI students choose to enroll in the English for Academic Purposes track; however, Arthur also mentioned that certain programs at Miskatonic University request that prospective students enroll in the ELDI's English for Science and Technology track before admittance. Thus, in actuality, the percentage of ELDI students desiring admission into a program of study at an American university might be higher than two-thirds. This observation is supported by data gleaned from the focus group, which revealed that all participants are enrolled in ELDI's Intensive English program for the purpose of developing the prerequisite level of English proficiency necessary to enter a program of study at an American university. During the focus group, as part of preliminary introductions, the participants were asked to state why they chose to enroll in ELDI's Intensive English program. Every student indicated that he or she enrolled in ELDI in order to acquire the English proficiency needed to gain acceptance in a degree program at an American university. Indeed, as mentioned in Finding 11, Ali B. indicated that his primary motivation for enrolling in an Intensive English program was to develop his English proficiency so that he might acquire the prerequisite score on the IELTS needed to gain admittance into his desired program of study. Likewise, when asked the consequences of not successfully learning English, Almas bluntly stated "I can't go to university."

Finding 13: An overwhelming majority (9 out of 11 [82%]) of the student participants expressed a preference for an attitudinally active language learning style.

Data from the focus group, as well as the student questionnaire used to inform the inquiry of the focus group, suggest that an active language learning style (Wong & Nunan, 2011) might be perceived by the students as a want in the learning situation; Wong and Nunan (2011) classified the communicative and concrete language learning style preferences as attitudinally active. According to Willing (as cited in Wong & Nunan, 2011), playing language learning games and talking in pairs are examples of language learning strategies that appeal to a concrete language learning style; both of these strategies were ranked as mildly desirable by the students on the needs analysis questionnaire. For example, in Part II of the questionnaire, the student participants ranked the item “I like to learn by playing games in class” ($M = 3.86, SD = .95$) higher than the items “I like to learn by listening” ($M = 3.67, SD = 1.05$), “I like to learn by reading” ($M = 3.67, SD = 1.18$), and “I like to write everything down” ($M = 3.64, SD = 1.22$). Likewise, the questionnaire data suggest that collaborative learning activities were seen by the student participants as desirable. The item “I like to work in pairs” ($M = 3.53, SD = .83$) was ranked in 17th place out of 24 items; whereas, the items “I like to work in small groups” ($M = 3.47, SD = .64$) and “I like to work with the whole class” ($M = 3.47, SD = 1.06$) were both ranked in 18th place. In contrast, the item “I like to study by myself” ($M = 3.20, SD = 1.15$) was ranked in 22nd place. The questionnaire data are supported by the fact that both collaborative learning and language learning games were cited several times during the focus group as a useful method in which to learn English. For example, Ali A. stated “I think the ways [for] students to get information [are] games and [working] in a group like this.” Similarly, Kalila cited language learning games as a common classroom activity she finds useful for developing her English

whereas Esperanza explained that she found collaborative learning to be useful. However, as the questionnaire results suggested, the perception of the value of collaborative learning wasn't unanimously held among the focus group participants; Ali B. stated that he preferred to work by himself as he can "focus [more] alone." Likewise, the small preference given to working in pairs, as opposed to working in small groups or as an entire class indicated by the student responses on the questionnaire, was also reflected in the focus group discussion; for example, Angelique mentioned that she didn't like working in groups of three or more as she found it distracting.

It is worth noting that while an overwhelming majority (9 out of 11 [82%]) of the focus group participants expressed that they found active language learning style desirable, the highest ranked items on the questionnaire suggest that authority-oriented language learning (Wong & Nunan, 2011) strategies were perceived by the student participants as more desirable. The item "I like the teacher to explain grammatical rules" ($M = 4.80$, $SD = .56$) was ranked 1st out of 24 items on Part II of the questionnaire, and the item "I like the teacher to explain the meaning of new words" ($M = 4.27$, $SD = 1.33$) was ranked 5th out of 24 items; both of these strategies were classified by Willing (as cited in Wong & Nunan, 2011) as part of authority-oriented language learning style. It is possible that the discrepancy between the results of the questionnaire and the focus group stems from the fact that the students who chose to participate in the focus group might be those students who are more extroverted, thus suggesting a possible attitudinal inclination to active language learning styles and strategies.

Faculty Perception of Language Learning Needs

In keeping with the study's theoretical framework, the findings of the faculty's perception of language learning needs, termed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) as *objective* needs, have

likewise been categorized into necessities, lacks, and wants for both their target situation and learning situation needs. The second research question was concerned with the perception of beginner-level international students' language learning needs held by faculty and administrators of a university-affiliated Intensive English program; 11 findings emerged from the data collected to answer this question. Within the research narrative for this section, faculty participants' responses to focus group questions were edited for grammar and clarity by the researcher when deemed necessary for increased readability. A summary of findings of the faculty's perception of language learning needs is presented in Table 4.8, and in-depth discussion of each finding follows the table.

Table 4.8.

Summary of Findings of Faculty Perception of Language Learning Needs

R.Q. 2: What are the academic English language learning needs of beginner-level students as perceived by the instructors and administrators of an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States?	
What information do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe is necessary to know in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?	Finding 14: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants identified knowledge of social English as necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.
	Finding 15: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants identified information concerning English for Specific Academic Purposes as necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.
	Finding 16: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants identified Writing and Speaking as discrete language skills necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.
What conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe are necessary in an Intensive English program in order for beginner-level students to learn academic English?	Finding 17: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants expressed the belief that instructional design for beginner-level students should entail lessons that consist of a series of varied language learning activities.

What necessary information do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students lack in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?	Finding 18: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants indicated that they believe their beginner-level students lack the conversational fluency that would enable interactive participation in an English-medium academic context.
	Finding 19: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants identified Reading as a discrete language skill beginner-level students typically lack.
What language learning conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students lack in their current learning situation?	Finding 20: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants expressed a belief that beginner-level students typically lack an understanding of communicative language learning.
What do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students want to learn about English?	Finding 21: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants expressed that they believe beginner-level students want to learn about social English.
	Finding 22: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants indicated that they believe beginner-level students are interested in learning more about American culture.
What language learning conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students want in an Intensive English program?	Finding 23: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants expressed their belief that beginner-level students typically desire attitudinally passive (<i>i.e.</i> , analytical or authority-oriented) language learning styles.
	Finding 24: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants indicated their belief that the majority of their beginner-level students wish to pursue a degree in an American university

Target Situation Necessities

Finding 14: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants identified knowledge of social English as necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.

One of the most salient findings from data gleaned from the faculty participants is that they unanimously held the perception that proficiency in the social register of English was a necessity for effective functioning within an American institution of higher education. The perception was expressed in various ways; for example, the syllabus for the course taught by

Carmen and Anna specifically stated that the ELDI identified the speaking and listening outcomes for level A students as to “understand basic, everyday speech when listening to spoken language that is adapted, slow, and clear,” “interact in short social exchanges,” and “talk about personal and everyday matters using basic phrases and sentences”; for level B, these outcomes were expanded in scope to “comprehend simple, everyday speech and conversations when listening to spoken language that is adapted, slow, and clear,” “engage in short social exchanges,” and “talk about personal and general social matters using basic phrases and sentences.”

The perception that beginner-level international students need proficiency in social English while studying in the United States was also expressed by the faculty participants during their interviews. Anna explained:

If they stay in the States, I would say they would use English in all aspects of their lives, basically, and that actually comes up during their study here. Beginners have a lot of trouble with things related to their daily lives; like, signing a lease, [reading] an electricity bill, living in the dorms, [and] talking to [and] making friends. They also have social needs, and that can be tough for the students as well. So, when we teach them English at the lower levels, we focus on Basic English; but, I do incorporate some of the academic and also the social.... During the beginning of my lessons, I always work on small talk with them; I always tell them that they’ll use it in every aspect of their lives: professional, academic, social. That’s how we build relationships. (Anna)

From this example, it can be seen that Anna connects the social function of small talk to professional and academic contexts; indeed, within the quote, Anna mentions the need to make friends or build interpersonal relationships three separate times. The perception of the need for

international students to use English for interpersonal interactions on campus was also expressed by Linda, who stated that “[if] they go to a university here, [they] mostly [use English] with roommates; they often have roommates from different places, so they have to [speak English].” According to Arthur, the necessity of social English for beginner-level international students is recognized within the ELDI’s curriculum:

Because of the way our curriculum is designed ... the objectives of the level A and level B courses are really limited to social English. It’s not until they start progressing into the low, mid, and high C [courses] where they really start getting introduced to some of the real academic skills. In A and B, they’re working on writing sentences, on greetings, and going to the grocery store; much more day-to-day, basic interpersonal communication.

In other words, Arthur made it clear that from the point of view of the program’s course designers, international students need to master the language needed to navigate the “town” (*i.e.*, social English) before they can study the language needed for the “gown” (*i.e.*, academic English).

Finding 15: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants identified information concerning English for Specific Academic Purposes as necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.

Carmen, Lori, and Anna each expressed their perception of the necessity of English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) for international students enrolled in a degree program at an American university. When asked to describe the target tasks international students will need to use English to accomplish during their degree studies, Carmen stated “I think it absolutely depends on what subjects they’re going to study. There are some who are studying Engineering, and that’s going to be very different from the people who are going to be studying accounting or

sociology.” Similarly, Anna seemed to also conceptualize target situation necessities in an ESAP framework:

They will use English to engage in academic material that’s related to their major. So, that varies with each student. I have students who have all different majors; like, a lot of engineers. We have some sci-tech people, business, law, [and] sometimes interior design. ... If their focus is math, then they don’t have to worry so much about writing research papers. But a lot of the other students worry about that type of thing; like, how to write a research paper ... and read academic material.

Likewise, Lori’s perception was that “they’ll need to know specific vocabulary based in their fields, so they’ll probably read a lot of technical material.”

While Arthur didn’t directly cited ESAP during his interview, when asked about his perception of international student target needs, his discussion of the necessity of needs analysis obliquely addresses the ESAP philosophy:

This is actually something that we are trying to look more closely at and get more feedback from the university at large. Because we have a pretty good idea, based on – I’m not sure what [it’s] based on: intuition, based on some interaction with other departments, but we should know more about what their expectations are. ... We do know some of the things that they’re expected to do, but I think we can do a better job of knowing more precisely. (Arthur)

On the other hand, Lori mentioned the fact that the Intensive English program isn’t currently designed in an ESAP framework, presenting academic language in a more general way. When asked what subject area knowledge her students enter the program with, Lori replied:

I don't really know because I don't really do readings or take material from areas where they might be able to show me: I already know what 'structure' means, I already know what 'building' means, I already know what 'bite' means ... if it's a sound 'bite' or computer 'byte.' So in that way, it's hard to say what they already know.

Finding 16: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants identified Writing and Speaking as discrete language skills necessary for effective functioning in an English-speaking academic institution.

The productive skills of academic writing and speaking (Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991) were most commonly identified by faculty participants as necessities in the target situation. This was most clearly expressed by Arthur, who stated, "We do know that they will be writing, regardless of their degree and their field; they will be writing. They will be expected to participate in discussions. They'll be expected to present on their ideas." During her interview, Carmen discussed the necessity of academic speaking proficiency, "one of the big ones is being part of discussions, speaking up in class, [and] classroom norms. I try to really instill in them the necessity of communication with the teacher." Lori connected the use of the productive skills of writing and speaking to material received through reading, when discussing her perception of necessities in the target situation:

From my understanding, they will read a lot and they'll write a lot.... We hope, based in American culture and the culture of American universities that they do get involved with some discussion groups within the classroom, based on a reading they might have done or based on some kind of writing workshop or an atmosphere that promotes interactive learning. As pedagogy has moved on, it's kind of made its way through to the universities and now they're doing a lot more interactive stuff, which I think is reflected

in the IBT (Internet Based Test) TOEFL and the IELTS test really not being based in the paper based TOEFL anymore and having them really have the speaking and writing skills that they'll need in order to succeed in that environment.

Curiously, the data collected from the needs analysis questionnaire administered to Carmen, Lori, and Arthur, presented in Table 4.9, did not match their responses given during the interviews. For example, while academic listening was only specifically mentioned by Lori as a necessity, "Listening to lectures" ($SD = .00$) was one of the six items ranked by the faculty participants ($n = 3$) with a mean of 5.00 in Part I of the needs analysis questionnaire; furthermore, "Participating in class discussion" ($SD = 1.00$) was the highest ranked academic speaking task in 10th place out of 19 items, with a mean of 4.00. During her interview, Carmen was asked by the researcher about this discrepancy; she stated:

I could not tell you why my answer has changed or what I was thinking at the time without seeing the question again. I expect them to do [speaking and listening tasks], but I also expect that by the time they [enter their program of study], they will have had so much practice doing that that it won't be as big an issue as some of the other skills. At least that's what I find in higher-level classes. The speaking they've got down; the reading and writing are what's difficult. (Carmen)

As detailed in Finding 15, Anna, following the ESAP philosophy, was of the opinion that the necessary skills for the target situation are dependent on a student's intended major or field of study whereas Linda did not specifically cite any of the four discrete skills during her interview.

Table 4.9.

Faculty ($n = 3$) Responses to Part I of Needs Analysis Questionnaire Ranked by Mean

Rank	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
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1	Listening to lectures	5.00	.00
1	Taking notes during lectures	5.00	.00
1	Understanding written instructions	5.00	.00
1	Understanding spoken instructions	5.00	.00
1	Using the Internet for research	5.00	.00
1	Using a computer for word processing	5.00	.00
7	Reading an academic text	4.67	.58
7	Taking written examinations	4.67	.58
9	Taking notes while reading	4.33	.58
10	Participating in class discussion	4.00	1.00
10	Summarizing or paraphrasing information from an academic text	4.00	.00
12	Using a library card catalog	3.67	.58
12	Writing essays, reports, theses and dissertations, or research papers	3.67	1.15
14	Giving an oral presentation	3.33	.58
14	Taking oral examinations	3.33	1.15
16	Asking questions during lectures	3.00	.00
16	Using a dictionary	3.00	1.00
16	Conducting survey research	3.00	.00
19	Recording the results of a laboratory experiment	2.67	.58

Learning Situation Necessities

Finding 17: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants expressed the belief that instructional design for beginner-level students should entail lessons that consist of a series of varied language learning activities of no greater than 15 minutes in length.

During the face-to-face interviews, all of the faculty participants described the importance of providing beginner-level students a series of varied language learning activities, about 5 to 15 minutes in length, during a lesson in order to prevent the students from feeling overwhelmed by one particular task. This is illustrated by Carmen's observations concerning how lesson delivery differs between beginner-level proficiency and higher levels:

The big difference between teaching the beginners and the higher levels is [that] you've got to change it up. Like, every five [to] ten minutes, it's something new, and I think that's what really gets them. When they have a longer activity, they sometimes get overwhelmed. Even students who seem like their personality would be that they would

want to just have that time; even then, I think they actually really like the differences that come on.... I think when I teach higher levels, they're much happier delving into an activity and being able to work on it much longer.

Linda's comments revealed that she approaches lesson design and pacing in a similar manner, tying the practice to her own personal experiences of mental fatigue when learning another language in an immersive environment:

One of the things I've noticed is that it's like when you're learning another language and you go to another country; after a while, your head hurts because you're trying so hard to function in a language that's not yours, right? For the beginners, it's much harder, so I make it a point, every 15 or 10 minutes, to change activities.... I think you have to know how to manage the energy of the class. That's really important because, you know, it's so much work for them.

Concern for fatigue was a consistent theme in the participant's description of how they design lessons for beginner-level students; in addition to mental fatigue, Lori expressed a concern for her students becoming physically fatigued as well:

But [if] there's some sense of manipulating objects on a desk; they seem to just jump right into that ... [putting] a story in order maybe that we've read, or [matching] vocabulary.... The other day, we were doing something that got them talking with people around the room. I tend to imagine myself in a situation where I'm a beginner level student, and I'm in a chair from 9 to 4, which many of these students are, and how that must feel for their bodies, to begin with, and then also for the concentration that comes with a handout.

Like Lori, Anna cited the many hours ELDI students spend in classes per day as a factor that contributes to the fatigue they perceive the students experiencing. Anna explained that she employs a lot of visuals and props in her lessons as a way to keep her students engaged:

As an instructor, I design and create my own lessons, and I use my own materials. Like, props and things like that. I have a lot of them that I use with lower level students because I think that, with beginners, especially, they're working so hard to understand me. When they start the semester, sometimes they cannot understand most of what I'm saying; so, they're working so hard.... I usually teach core [courses] from 9:00 to 12:00. It's a three-hour lesson, and by the end of it, they're just exhausted; then, they have afternoon classes from 1:30 to 4:00. They show fatigue, and at a certain point, I feel like nothing is happening, [and] that's not good. So, I try to keep activities in the lesson short; I try to have a variety [of activities], and I use a lot of props. (Anna)

Arthur also identified lessons consisting of varied activities delivered at a quick pace as good instructional practice for beginner-level students, being of the opinion that such a lesson structure keeps students engaged and combats fatigue:

Teaching at the beginning level frequently involves a lot of teacher time, there's a lot of interaction with [students], there's a lot of responsibility on the part of the teacher to keep the class moving, [and] to keep activities going. Mostly because the language ability of the students is not there; they can't really carry anything. So having frequent changes of activities is really beneficial.... Once they've started to get into the flow of doing physical activities, then going to a group activity, and then walking around and [roleplaying being a guest at] a cocktail party, and then going to a listening activity and writing – that controlled change from one activity to the next helps them to not get bored.

I think, ultimately, the things that they don't really appreciate are activities that go on for too long that either push them too hard or they're perceived as being not helpful.

[However,] tying five or six activities together, practicing different aspects of the objectives for the day, and keeping things moving helps to keep that interest up; it, also, depending on the time of day, helps to keep them from falling asleep. (Arthur)

In addition to the fatigue inherent in the complex cognitive task of learning another language necessitating lessons consisting of a series of short, varied activities, the participants also expressed the belief that beginner-level students are only able to process a small amount of information in the target language at any one time. One example of this belief can be found in Linda's observation concerning what makes good teaching for low proficiency students:

I think for lower levels you need the ability to break things down into smaller pieces.

Like, one of the things that I think teachers have mentioned [that] they find challenging is how to teach grammar [to beginners], but just teach one aspect of it. Because you can't go up to a beginner and say 'Well here's the past, perfect, progressive, blah, blah, blah'.

You have to break it down into just enough for them to have a conversation, but without doing the whole thing.

Furthermore, Anna also connected the necessity of planning lessons of short, varied activities with her perception that beginner-level students need to be acculturated to the active nature typical of communicative language teaching methodology, stating "[t]hat is a big adjustment for them; learning how to be in an environment where they're very active. [So], I set up activities. That's basically what I do throughout a lesson: relatively short activities."

Target Situation Lacks

Finding 18: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants indicated that they believe many of their beginner-level students lack the conversational fluency and understanding of classroom norms necessary for meaningful participation in an English-medium academic context.

All of the faculty participants expressed, in one way or another, their perception many beginner-level students to communicate in class lack the conversational fluency (Cummins, 2001) and classroom cultural norms that would enable them to meaningfully participate as students in an English-medium postsecondary institution. The first source of evidence for this can be found in the syllabus used by Carmen and Linda for their Intensive English courses; the syllabus lists the language outcomes defined by the ELDI for levels A and B. According to the syllabus, at the end of level A, students should be able to do the following in English:

- Understand basic, everyday speech when listening to spoken language that is adapted, slow, and clear.
- Interact in short social exchanges.
- Talk about personal and everyday matters using basic phrases and sentences.
- Understand short, simple, adapted texts with basic vocabulary.
- Write a short, simple passage.

At the end of level B, the ELDI student outcomes listed on Carmen and Linda's syllabus were:

- Comprehend simple, everyday speech and conversations when listening to spoken language that is adapted, slow, and clear.
- Engage in short social exchanges.
- Talk about personal and general social matters using basic phrases and sentences.

- Understand simple, adapted texts.
- Write a short, simple passage and connect ideas from sentence to sentence.

It can be seen from these outcomes that the ELDI assumes that their beginner-level students enter their program lacking the ability to use English for basic interpersonal communication.

For example, Carmen identified lack of understanding of classroom norms as something she has encountered with her beginning-level students; she provided the example of some of her Chinese students, stating “[they] are not allowed to sleep in my class, because I do not think that is appropriate, even if they can do that in China.” Similarly, Anna observed that beginner-level students often experience culture shock when first exposed to the culture of the American postsecondary classroom:

I see a lot of culture shock. This is a huge cultural adjustment for a lot of the students. For example, a lot of our students are from the Middle East, where there’s gender separation in the classroom. So, for many of my male students, I am their first female teacher. That can be a huge adjustment. For the women from countries like Saudi Arabia, sometimes it’s very hard for them to interact with men. Often when I enter a classroom, I’ll see women on one side, men on the other.

Anna cited the program’s mission to instruct students in academic cultural norms as well as language, as the program has identified both as necessary for functioning in the target situation:

At the lower levels, the way I look at it is, [acculturation]’s a process. I let [the students] know what will be expected of them, but that takes time. For example, I would never force a female student to interact with a male student if she was not comfortable with that. [However,] I would let the student know that in the future, her teachers would expect her, in a university classroom setting in the United States, to do that. (Anna)

Concerning conversational fluency (Cummins, 2001), Anna detailed just how low of a proficiency level in English many of her beginning-level students start the program with:

A lot of the students don't know basic words. When they come in, they might not know "chair," "desk," [or] "table." Things like that. Really basic things. And if they don't know those basic things, that can be a real challenge if they want to study academic English.

Anna also connected her beginning-level students' lack in conversational fluency (Cummins, 2001) with their problems with acculturation to American classroom norms:

I do my best to be culturally sensitive; I talk to the students about things like that. At the lower levels, those conversations can be more challenging because they don't have the vocabulary to explain things to me. So I have to try to pay attention to nonverbal behavior, but then that's also culturally bound so that can be a little confusing sometimes.

Arthur observed that many beginner-level students feel anxiety concerning making mistakes, which leads to a lower willingness to communicate (Yashima, 2002), and, in turn, less participation in the classroom:

At the lower levels, there's a lot of apprehension. There's a lot of shyness ... the fear of making mistakes, the fear of perceptions, or what have you. I'm reading the evaluations [by] the faculty of the beginning level students right now, and a lot of what the comments are is "The student should practice pronunciation outside of class," [or] "the student should practice speaking more outside of class." You know, those are very common comments, and it's, I think, largely due to this apprehension about making mistakes, which is frequently associated with students from Japan or Korea.... [However,] I think

a lot of students are, regardless of their background, not necessarily as willing at the lower levels to make those mistakes. (Arthur)

Arthur's observations were shared by Linda, who mentioned that her beginning-level students are "very hesitant to speak" in her classes; however, unlike Arthur, Linda identified this trait more with her East Asian students than her Middle Eastern students.

Finding 19: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants identified Reading as a discrete language skill most beginner-level students lack.

Academic reading was identified as a discrete language skill lacking in most beginner-level students by most of the faculty participants; this perception is illustrated by Carmen's observation concerning student awareness of specific linguistic tasks required by the target situation:

There's often a very, very high reading load, which I think personally a lot of students don't fully recognize how much they're going to be expected to read and then interact with what they have read, and to be able to use that in papers; not just citing sources ... but actually taking material and being able to use it to express their own thoughts.

Similarly, Lori commented on the lack of preparation her students have concerning the amount of reading required in their courses:

Talking to students that I've had in the past that did move on, they usually were pretty overwhelmed with the amount of reading that they had to do and were underwhelmed with the amount of speaking they had to do.

Learning Situation Lacks

Finding 20: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants expressed a belief that beginner-level students typically lack an understanding of communicative language learning.

All of the faculty participants, in some way, indicated that they perceive a lack of understanding on the part of their beginner-level students of communicative language learning principles. This perception is illustrated by Linda's observation,

[The students] conceptualize teaching and learning as having lectures and then doing exercises ... and when I don't do that sometimes I get pushback. Like, I make them sing, I make them act out stories, I make them play verb ball, and, at first, they're kind of like, "Oh my God! This teacher's crazy," but I make them do anything I can where they're talking interactively. Then, usually, their speaking really improves quite a bit ... but they [still] see [teaching] as, "you lecture me and I do grammar."

On the other hand, Linda expressed during her interview that while beginner-level students might not enter the program with an understanding of communicative language teaching, she perceives many of her students as learning to enjoy language learning activities that are interactive and communicative in nature:

They do like ... the audio-lingual method. They do like speaking where they have more structure; where they have sort of set word chunks and things they can practice or role playing conversation. They seem to like that a lot. They love games. Sometimes, they like singing.

Indeed, Linda observed that beginner-level students are often more willing to accept communicative language learning than intermediate students:

So when the students are at the very beginning, [at the] very, very beginning, they're motivated. They try to speak, they do little bits; but when they're just past the beginning level, maybe advanced beginning or moving towards intermediate, they think if they do enough grammar drills that they can skip levels even though they're not ready.

Linda's perceptions were also shared by Carmen, who related an anecdote about the difficulty a pair of her students had in understanding pair work:

A lot of [students] are used to much more lecturing. However, some of them have been to other ESL programs before, and they kind of understand more about group work and games. In the summer, I had two guys who would always laugh because they got used to me saying "you two, you two, you two," and I don't even think they realized that "you" was "you two people work together." Because they'd just say, "you two, you two." So, it was kind of new for them, I think.

When asked if students' past educational experiences or cultural values contributed to their difficulty in understanding communicative language teaching, Lori replied,

Yeah, maybe.... They may have had teachers where it was like, "Johnny," you know, in the back of the room, "what is two plus two?" And they have to instantly answer it.

Whereas some of the pedagogy that we've studied is why not have Johnny talk with Sara first about what two plus two is, and then you ask, "Who can answer this?" Or you say, "Okay, now you've talked, Johnny; what did you and Sara think?"... Sometimes the continuum can go too far where we can set ourselves up based on solely the pedagogy that we've studied and not really on student expectation and willingness to work within a style that's comfortable for them.

Linda also connected her students' difficulties with communicative language teaching with their home cultures' preferred learning styles, stating that most students were used to classes that were "teacher directed [with] mostly teacher to student interaction." Linda supported her observation with the following example of how her beginning-level students have problems with classroom activities that focus on peer-to-peer interaction:

Even when you have them play games or give presentations where I'm not in charge or I don't know the answer, they'll still look at me, and I'm like, "Why are you looking at me? I have no idea what this person's favorite color is. Look at them!" It's really hard to get them to refocus, and with presentations too, they'll look at me, and I'm like, "Well, no. Talk to your audience and see if they have any questions."

During her interview, Lori commented on how Linda, her co-teacher, would express her frustrations concerning the difficulty their students have with interactive speaking tasks in the classroom:

[Linda] even says to me, "I don't know what else I need to do. I set up speaking situations and they ask each other what [they are] going to do on the weekend."... Then she says they just sit there and do nothing.

Lori contrasted Linda's frustration with an experience she had recently with their class where meaningful, interactive peer-to-peer participation occurred:

I was so impressed with them the other day because I had them read a story, and there were no comprehension questions for them to look up. But I said, "You guys are going to have to tell this story to another group, so you've really got to know the story because you're going to tell it to them," and then the amount of speaking that came out of these guys! It was just like Caleb Gattengo ... he said grant your students everything, but take

nothing for granted. So, this idea of granting them, like, “You can do this; you’re beginner-level students, but you can read the story and you can tell it.” All of the authentic speech that came out was riddled with errors, don’t get me wrong, but they were getting their message across. I feel like it was so gratifying for me to watch them speak in these long speaking turns and then negotiate meaning, you know? Because they had to say: “Wait, the woman got off the bus?” “No, the woman stay on bus, but child off bus.” “Oh, child off bus? No mother?” “Yeah.” So, they’re going back and forth trying to figure out the story, and I feel like that for me, as the reading and writing teacher integrating speaking in such a meaning-rich way, that I wonder how I can do that if I’m the speaking and listening teacher. How can I get that conversation level to happen that it’s not just “What are you going do this weekend?” “I’m going to see a movie. Okay, teacher, finished.” Right? It doesn’t go anywhere with that, so I can understand her frustration. [Linda] says “I give them speaking activities, but then they stop.” Well, it’s because they don’t have any motivation to keep going; they finished your task. So that’s, for me, a puzzle of how do I get that long speaking turn to happen, and that negotiation [of meaning] to happen within a speaking setting that mimics what they might find out there. How do I get good discussion to happen on a topic that allows them to really work with it and is motivating? (Lori)

When asked about the relationship between basic interpersonal communication skills (Cummins, 2001) and academic language, Lori replied,

They need to build some basic interaction skills before we even move onto academic [skills], but debate can happen at a basic level. We can talk about whether people should drive at age 16, and have to come to some consensus at the end. It’s an academic mode

of interacting in that we're debating, and I give them some terms about how to agree and disagree, but it's a topic that's somewhat social. (Lori)

Target Situation Wants

Finding 21: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants expressed that they believe beginner-level students want to learn about social English.

Carmen, Lori, and Linda indicated that they believe beginner-level students desire to improve their social English. In support of her perception, Carmen cited the example of a past student who said that “he wished [he] learned more social English; like, what’s the polite way to ask for your check in a restaurant.” Carmen added that “[social English is] not the aim of ELDI, but I think [the students] would really benefit from it in some ways.” Lori also identified social English as a want of beginner-level students. In support of her perception of the desire of beginning-level students for social English, Lori cited her knowledge of what the students typically do outside of class:

They like to socialize with each other. They like to go to coffee shops. They like to go to restaurants. They have each other over to each other’s houses, [but] it’s not usually much more than just sharing a meal together in the house. I have not found that they’re very interested in exploring the city or getting to know museums, historical things, or artistic things. They’ll go shopping; they’ll go to a movie theater. They’ll take a walk, or they’ll go to the [university’s fitness center].

Lori also mentioned that her students seem to want to interact with native English speaking peers in a social context, “They get really excited about chances to speak with native speakers – willing native speakers. Like, if we have conversation club two days a week, they’ll get really excited about that.” Likewise, Linda also felt strongly that her beginning-level students desired

to learn more about social English, stating that “more often than not they want social [English]. If it were just up to them, I think they would want social more than academic [English].” Linda justified her perception by explaining, “They want to be able to be more independent: buy groceries [and] do things, and they need social English for that.” Also, Linda expressed that she believes her students desire social English as they wish to develop friendships with American peers. When asked why she believes her beginning-level students are more motivated to learn social English over academic English, Linda answered,

I think that they want to be able to socialize [and] make friends. A lot of them, when they come, [are] sort of disappointed at how hard it is to make friends with Americans. They hear all these stories about, ‘Oh, it’s great. You’ll go to movies. You’ll meet all these friends.’ (Linda)

Additionally, Linda observed that some of her students were motivated to learn social English as “maybe one or two want girlfriends or boyfriends.”

On the other hand, Anna indicated that she believes most of her beginning-level students are interested in learning academic English as opposed to social English. Anna grounded her belief in her perception that most of her beginning-level students have “unrealistic goals; like, learning English within a year and then getting into university.” The faculty participants’ perceptions concerning the desire of their beginning-level students to enter university is detailed further in Finding 24.

Finding 22: Most (3 out of 5 [60%]) of the faculty participants indicated that they believe beginner-level students are interested in learning more about American culture.

The belief that the beginning-level students in their program are interested in learning about American culture was expressed by Lori, Anna, and Linda. This perception is perhaps best

illustrated by Linda's observations on why she feels students are motivated to learn social English:

I think they really want to try and fit in; they want to understand the culture. ... They're really curious about Americans. They want to see how Americans live; [Arkham]'s an interesting city, so they want to see the zoo, the aquarium.... They're very curious about culture.

Learning Situation Wants

Finding 23: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) the faculty participants expressed their belief that beginner-level students typically desire attitudinally passive (i.e., analytical or authority-oriented) language learning styles.

A corollary of Finding 20, which detailed the faculty participants' perception that beginner-level students lack an understanding of communicative language teaching, is the faculty participants' perception that beginner-level students feel more comfortable with passive language learning styles (Wong & Nunan, 2011). For example, a strong desire to study grammar, a preferred strategy in the analytical and authority-oriented styles (Wong & Nunan, 2011), was cited by Linda as representative of many of her students:

Oh, this has been a real bone of contention with me! [The students] love grammar and they love to do isolated grammar exercises, which, in my opinion, are one of the worst ways to learn. They're very hesitant to speak, but I force them to speak interactively a lot; their speaking improves, but it's hard to get them to the point where they accept that.

(Linda)

Lori's response was similar to Linda's in that she also observed a preference for authority-oriented learner strategies (Wong & Nunan, 2011) among her beginning-level students:

I get feedback from them that they really want to work with the textbook, and I think some of them come from these backgrounds that really feel like success equals finishing the book or showing you that I've finished my homework and going through those pages and saying, "See? It's all done, there." So I feel like I push myself to use textbooks because I assume that some of the learners are really getting their satisfaction out of that, out of studying for vocabulary quizzes. They get so worked up about "When is the quiz? Oh, it's Tuesday? What are we going to have to do?" "You're going to have to know part of speech, how to use it in a sentence, how to say it, how to spell it." "All of that, Teacher?" "Yeah, you can do it. You can do it. It's just this list." And then if they succeed on that quiz and get a high score, [they get] that sense of gratification based on quizzes. Some of those things are not necessarily my gauge of success when I'm a learner. Like, cramming vocabulary into my head and then doing on a quiz doesn't necessarily make me feel like I'm a good user of the language. But I feel like there are some things that, if that answers your question, I do in order to motivate them to learn because it's maybe their educational style to do it that way.

Further evidence for this finding was supplied by Anna. When asked how she believes her students conceptualize learning and teaching, Anna replied,

I would say that many of them take a very passive role as learners, and they just think I should stand up and lecture and they listen or not. And somehow, something magical happens, and then they can speak English. That's what I think. And when they get here, they realize that, number one, I don't just stand up here and lecture, that we actually do things in class, I expect something from them, and that I expect their full participation. They don't always want to fully participate. It depends on the student but, they might

say, “Well, I’m shy,” or “I don’t want to talk.” They’ll just come up with some excuses like that.

Anna’s observation suggests that her students seem to express a preference for an authority-oriented language learning style (Wong & Nunan, 2011). According to Willing (as cited in Wong & Nunan, 2011), writing everything down in a notebook during lecture, working in a textbook, studying grammar, and learning vocabulary through explicit study are strategies that appeal to an authority-oriented learner; in each of their comments on their perception of the preferred language learning styles of their students, Linda, Lori, and Anna cited at least one of these strategies as ones they perceive the students as finding comfortable or desirable. Arthur found the question of what learning styles beginning-level students prefer to be complex:

I think that’s kind of a tricky question because they tend to like to learn in the way that they’re most familiar with. It may not necessarily be the most useful to them, but it’s comfortable; so, they tend to like it better. However, once they begin to work with an almost across the board different style of teaching and interaction, more often than not, they appreciate the fact that the faculty member is more of a guide, or more of a coach, than a lecturer.

Arthur’s statement suggests that he believes international students eventually acculturate into communicative language teaching once they recognize its utility.

Finding 24: All (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants indicated their belief that the majority of their beginner-level students wish to pursue a degree in an American university

Central to the English for Specific Purposes approach is acknowledgement of the student’s purpose for learning English (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Finding 24 revealed that the faculty participants’ perception of the reason their beginning-level students want to learn

English was in line with the students' reported reason, which detailed in Finding 12. It is notable that all of the faculty participants seemed to be aware that the students desire entry into a regular course of study in an American university. When asked his perception of why the beginner-level students enrolled in ELDI want to learn English, Arthur answered, "The primary motivation is a desire to attend a university in the United States at some point in the future. Most of our students in the beginning -- in all levels -- have that goal." Anna noted that the fact that the majority of students seek entry into a university wasn't always true for the ELDI; when asked if she had noticed any demographic trends in her beginner-level students, Anna replied,

A lot of younger students. University bound students. That's what they're interested in. It used to be that [ELDI] students would have different goals, like studying English and maybe not so academic, but now it seems like almost all the students want to get into universities here. That's the direction that our institution is moving as well; we're focusing more on academic English.

Anna also commented that for beginner-level students, their perception of the time necessary to achieve such a goal is often unrealistic:

Many of the students would like to study at university in the United States. It's a real challenge because if they come in at a beginning level, many of them want to, within a year, learn English and enter a university program in the United States. Many of them hope to be freshmen at an undergrad level, and then, sometimes we get students who are interested in grad school. To be completely honest with you, many times they have what I would consider unrealistic goals; where they think they can learn English within two semesters, and then enter university. Many of them say they want to go to some place like Harvard or someplace like that. [Laughs].

Similarly, Linda cited the pressure she perceives as being placed on her students by their sponsoring agencies, “Some of my students come from [countries whose] governments, where even though [the students have] just started, [the students are] required to take either TOEFL or IELTS tests ... in order to keep their scholarships.” Linda concluded this means “sometimes [the students are] pushed into academic English even though they’re not ready.”

Accommodation of Beginner-Level Language Learning Needs

The third research question that guided the inquiry of this study was concerned with the ways in which university-affiliated Intensive English programs in the United States of America can accommodate the language learning needs of the international students enrolled in their beginner-level courses. Data collected from both the student participants and the faculty participants were used to answer this question. As a result from the analysis, four findings emerged from the data (Table 4.10). Evidence for these findings came from a focus group of student participants, face-to-face interviews with faculty participants, on-site observation, and document analysis; the data collection and analysis were informed by the results of a needs analysis questionnaire administered to the student and faculty participants. However, even though the demographics of the participants in the study were reflective of the ELDI as a whole, because a large percentage of student participants were from Saudi Arabia, as well as other countries of origin being represented by a single participant, the findings for the sub-questions should be interpreted with caution. A summary of findings of the participants’ perception of how beginner-level language learning needs can be accommodated within an Intensive English program is presented in Table 4.10, and in-depth discussion of each finding follows the table.

Table 4.10.

Summary of Findings of Accommodation of Beginner-Level Language Learning Needs

<p>R. Q. 3: In what ways can Intensive English programs affiliated with institutions of higher education located within the United States accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level international students?</p>	<p>Finding 25: A large majority (4 out of 5 [80%]) of faculty participants expressed the belief that certain teacher dispositions are necessary to successfully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level students.</p>
	<p>Finding 26: Almost half (5 out of 11 [45%]) of the student focus group participants and all (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants indicated that beginner-level instruction should include out-of-classroom learning in which students can interact with native speakers in naturalistic situations.</p>
<p>a. Are there significant differences in the language learning needs between individual students who share the same country of origin or native language group?</p>	<p>Finding 27: Some (2 out of 5 [40%]) of the faculty participants perceive significant differences in language needs between individual students who share the same cultural or language group.</p>
<p>b. Are there significant differences in the language learning needs between individual students who are from different countries of origin or native language group?</p>	<p>Finding 28: Data from the student focus group and face-to-face interviews with faculty suggest that significant differences in the language learning needs between individual students who are from different cultural or language groups might exist.</p>

Finding 25: A large majority of faculty participants (4 out of 5 [80%]) expressed the belief that certain dispositions are necessary to successfully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level students.

One of the more striking findings to emerge from the interviews with the faculty participants is that when asked how many instructors in the program were particularly skilled in teaching beginner-level students, all the faculty participants specifically indicated that only four or five instructors possessed aptitude in beginner-level instruction, which out of a faculty of 65 individuals, suggests that the participants believe only seven percent of their program's faculty are competent in teaching beginner-level students. When asked how they determined if an instructor was skilled in beginner-level instruction, all of the participants pointed to dispositional

factors, in particular, patience. The dispositions identified by the faculty participants as necessary for good beginner-level instruction are listed in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11.

Key Teacher Dispositions for Beginner-Level Instruction as Identified by Faculty Participants

Disposition	Participants Who Identified Disposition
Being Patient	Carmen, Anna, Linda, Arthur
Being Caring	Carmen, Anna
Being Encouraging	Carmen, Arthur, Anna
Being Animated/Active	Arthur, Anna
Being Observant	Carmen, Anna

Concerning the need for particular dispositions by language proficiency level, Carmen, who has taught courses in all proficiency levels, explained,

I think a lot of teachers here have said to me, “Oh, I could never teach the beginning levels!” Because it’s a completely different animal, teaching beginner students. I think that teaching beginning students makes me a better teacher for higher-level students. I think the patience and awareness that you need to teach beginning students, and multiple intelligences, I think all of that makes me a better teacher for the higher levels.

Patience was identified as the key disposition that separates the skilled from the unskilled by Anna, Arthur, and Linda as well; for example, Anna connected the disposition of patience with the instructional practice of allowing enough wait time for student responses, “Not a lot of people have the patience to teach lower levels; that’s what I would say. I think it takes a lot of patience and you need to be able [to allow] wait time for that answer. You need a certain personality.” When asked to elaborate, Anna explained,

I don't mind waiting for someone to answer. I don't mind repeating myself many times, which I find that I need to do, and even when I've explained something three times, I might have to explain it again. ... Or I've written the homework on the board, I have it on [the class] blog, and I demonstrated part of the [assignment]; sometimes, I have them start it, and I check and make sure. Then, the next day, when they come to class, they don't have their homework done, and I think, "Okay, well, what happened here? Where did the communication break down?" I have to often think about things like that and usually go back – "Okay, let's try this again." So I think it takes a certain type of person who has the patience to do all that.

Similarly, Linda cited patience as necessary disposition that is conducive to good instructional practices for beginner-level students:

I wouldn't say a lot [of people are skilled in teaching beginners]; well, okay, let me change that. I think there are many people who are skilled. I don't know if they have the patience. ... I'm not saying this because I work [at ELDI], I'm saying this because I was surprised when I started there at how well educated [the teachers are] and how much varied experience all the teachers had. But there are many teachers that say, "Oh, God! You do beginning levels? I can't do that!" And I think it's just that they don't have the patience, because you don't have any vocabulary to work with. I think there are many skilled teachers; whether or not they have the patience to slow down and deal with beginners is another story. They'll say it themselves, it's not me saying it. They'll say, "Oh, I can't do it!" So, it tends to be the same teachers over and over, like me and a few others that teach the beginning levels.

While patience was cited by most of the participants as a necessary disposition for instructors of beginner-level students, dispositions related to meeting the students' affective needs were also cited by many of the participants. Such dispositions included having a caring nature, encouraging the students, being animated or active, and being observant. An example of this is illustrated in Arthur's explanation as to why he thinks Carmen is an exemplary instructor of beginning-level students:

One of the better beginning level teachers, who probably would not necessarily agree with my saying this, is Carmen. I think, honestly, she can teach pretty much any level really, really well, but she's really good with the beginning levels because she is so animated. She is so interesting, and she is very encouraging and active, which helps a lot at the beginning levels. When you're an adult learner in a second language, you're learning how to do things that you learned in your native language, in some cases, decades ago. It's really mentally difficult, physically difficult, and emotionally difficult to be going into a group and realizing that you are incapable of talking about things that are important to you. Having someone who's really able to draw you out is extremely helpful at getting lower level students to work, to practice, and to be okay with making mistakes. (Arthur)

Carmen, herself, expressed a similar opinion when she discussed the affective needs of her beginner-level students:

I think one of the things that all students, but especially these beginner students really need is to be able to be seen, and they need to feel like they are important. It's so easy for them to feel stupid. One of my major efforts is to really show them that I feel like they are validated and that I respect them, and I respect how much they can do rather than

focus on how much they can't do. Even in terms of their writing, I really try to work on their grammar, of course, and their reading; answer and comprehension questions. But I also, really, even at this low level, ask them questions like, what part did you like?

Personalizing it so that they can see that their answers and their contributions to the class are helping everybody in the class and helping them.

Concern for the affective needs of students was cited by Carmen as a key disposition for teaching beginning level students:

I think that's a major part of the beginning level classes that sometimes gets missed. I think most beginning teachers have that as part of their personality and the qualities of who they are. I think sometimes teachers who prefer higher levels and teach higher levels [don't]. Not that they don't have that in them, they absolutely can, but that it gets slightly different – it shouldn't; I think it should be true all along. I think it's an important part of beginning level students, and I think students really, really respond to that. I mean everybody does. Anyway, I just wanted to add that because I think it's more important than whatever you teach them is that they're more motivated to learn when they know that it's actually making a difference. (Carmen)

Likewise, Anna stated that a concern for the particular affective needs of beginner-level students was a necessary disposition for instructors:

That's another thing too: someone who can create an atmosphere in which the students feel comfortable. Because a lot of beginners are very anxious; they get so nervous about making mistakes and it takes a lot to lower that affective filter. They need someone to help them relax, feel comfortable, and feel they can trust. Also, someone who's supportive; someone who can help that student. I find that beginners have real emotional

needs as well. Different teachers have different views of this type of thing, but I think as a teacher with students who've just come to a foreign country for the first time, they're in complete culture shock. They're vulnerable in some ways and they need a person who's supportive, and who can identify if they're having problems.

Anna explained how she works together with the ELDI's student advisor to monitor the physical, mental, and emotional health of her beginner-level students and intervene if there is a problem:

We have a student advisor, if a student is having any kind of trouble in their lives.

Sometimes there could be a health issue, a special need, a learning issue. All kinds of things can come up. I always work together with the student advisor if the student needs extra help with mental health services or any other kind of services. We try to support that student too. (Anna)

Anna indicated that such monitoring was of particular importance to beginner-level students, due to their inability to adequately communicate such complex problems:

Whereas, I think at higher levels, the students are much more independent usually. They can just, do things on their own and they don't need the teacher; but, I don't feel that way with my beginners. They wouldn't even know where to start if they're having trouble.

First, how do they even communicate what's going on? I might be able to see something's not right, but then how do we establish what's wrong? Anyway, I think you need somebody who's sensitive that way to work with beginners; somebody who doesn't mind taking that role on a little bit.

Finding 26: Almost half (5 out of 11 [45%]) of the student focus group participants and all (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants indicated that beginner-level instruction should include experiential, out-of-classroom learning in which students can interact with native speakers in naturalistic situations.

In keeping with the perception held by faculty that naturalistic and experiential out-of-classroom learning is appropriate for beginner-level language learning needs, the ELDI offers an elective course known as Dynamic English⁴. The program's website describes the course in this manner:

You will improve your speaking and listening and develop your vocabulary in this project-based class. You will learn actively with other students when you do presentations about your country and culture, engage in experiential learning, practice using English in real-life situations, and learn about American culture and customs through holiday-based projects and other activities. This class is for students in the elementary to low-intermediate level.

During the time of the study, the instructor for the Dynamic English elective was Lori, who was also involved in the initial development of the course. Lori explained the benefit of the course for the beginner level students:

I teach the afternoon class called [Dynamic English]. It's basically something that a group of us got together and really developed this course; so, I feel a real connection with it because it is based in, basically, one day in class and one day out of class. We just went to [a baseball stadium] and did a tour with beginner levels. And the thing that's so nice is that [a] native speaker, is talking [and] talking [at a] normal speed with the [other people

⁴ The course is referred to pseudonymously

on the tour]. We're walking from site to site, and as we're walking, I'm just doing a little bit of support work: "Did you understand what she said?"... I think the thing that's so exciting is that they're tired at the end of the day, for one, and they need a little activity. And two, it opens this city culturally to them. I have a budget, and I can buy tickets for them to do things. [The program director] and [Arthur] really support the idea that experiential learning is important in general, but particularly with this class. They really have attached to the idea that going outside of the classroom helps these learners take on kind of a real life language experience.

As Lori's quote reveals, the perception that experiential learning accommodates the language learning needs of beginner-level students is one that is held by the highest levels of ELDI's leadership, as well as by the beginner-level instructors. Indeed, Arthur, the associate director of the program, identified out-of-classroom, experiential learning as a resource provided by the program that is specifically geared to meet the needs of their beginner-level students:

We are pretty generous when it comes to beginning level students taking field trips and things like that; going out and going to a shop, going grocery shopping, or going to a restaurant or something like that together. They do a lot of outside of the classroom activity that generally doesn't happen to the same degree with the upper levels. So, I guess that's another thing that is sort of for the beginning levels. (Arthur)

In addition to the Dynamic English elective, Anna, Linda, and Carmen cited the work of ELDI's student life coordinator, as providing beginner-level students opportunities for experimental, out-of-classroom learning. Linda remarked positively concerning the role the student life coordinator plays within the ELDI, commenting, "[the student life coordinator] does a ton of activities that are great; [the students] have all kinds of opportunities to do stuff in the

community, to go to college events, [and] to do service learning.” Carmen gave some examples of the activities coordinated by the student life coordinator, “They can talk to native speakers, they can go out with [the student life coordinator] to baseball games, tour [a famous American university], or whatever.” Anna detailed several other activities organized by the student life coordinator in which beginner-level students are capable of meaningfully participating, “There’s a cooking group, and lots of hands on things where lower level students, even though they might not know all the vocabulary, can still participate and learn something.”

Additionally, Anna described the connections between the instruction that occurs in class and the activities organized by the student life coordinator:

We have a spelling bee every semester. We have different levels; so, the lower level students can participate in the spelling bee. And they do! It’s really fun, and the students enjoy it. This summer, I’m going to work with [the student life coordinator], and we’re going try to put together a peer reading group where they use L1 to support L2. A lower level student works with a higher-level student. That’s something completely new that we’re going pilot this summer, but [the student life coordinator] is totally open. (Anna)

In addition to the work of the student life coordinator, Linda mentioned other opportunities ELDI students have for experiential language learning:

For a while I was running my own paper, and students were writing for it. So we would meet every week to go to lunch and do lunch reviews, and all kinds of things. Also, most teachers try to do field trips.

The utility of experiential learning for their English development was also recognized by the student participants. From the perspective of the students, an out-of-classroom learning experience that was specifically identified as conducive to meeting their needs was the service

learning program described by Esperanza, a participant in the focus group. When asked what activities helped the participants learn English, Esperanza cited “[participating] in different activities, like volunteering, because you can speak with another student who speaks English very well.”

Finding 27: Some (2 out of 5 [40%]) of the faculty participants perceive significant differences in language learning needs between individual students who share the same cultural or language group.

There was no data gleaned from the student focus group, on-site observations, or document analysis to suggest that significant differences in language learning needs between individual students within the same culture or language group. For example, as Table 4.5 reveals, the eight Saudi Arabian participants in the focus group did not show any discernable patterns in differences due to age, gender, or major when expressing their perception of necessary discrete language skills in the target situation. However, during the face-to-face interviews with the faculty participants, both Carmen and Anna reported that they had observed differences in language learning needs between individual students within the same culture or language group. As evidence for this, both of them cited Howard Gardner’s multiple intelligences theory (Davis, Christodoulou, Seider, & Gardner, 2013) as support for their observations of the individual differences in language learning needs they perceived to exist among the beginner-level students they have taught. Carmen first prefaced her practice in varied activities for beginner-level instructional design, which was detailed in Finding 17, by citing Gardner’s multiple intelligences theory (Davis, Christodoulou, Seider, & Gardner, 2013) as justification for the practice:

In my experience, of course, everybody's different. I try to really have that, I don't know whether it's still in vogue, but the kinesthetic and all the [other] different multiple intelligences. I feel like you kind of are going to get a couple people every way when you do that. (Carmen)

Likewise, Anna also cited Gardner's multiple intelligences theory (Davis, Christodoulou, Seider, & Gardner, 2013) to justify employing differentiated instruction in her beginner-level classes:

I would say that there are individual differences there. With lower level students, I think that things that are more experiential or hands on can be good. I like to use Howard Gardner's multiple intelligences; I think it's good to use different avenues of learning because just the linguistic can be really hard for students, because they don't have the language yet – that foundation. So while I'm building it, I try to engage different intelligences. And so we do some activities that are physical, you know like total physical response – hands on things. All kinds of things where I use visual things or they listen. I try to vary the activities so [I] engage different intelligences. It depends on the group too. Like, sometimes I like to use music, but not with all groups. I use music, for example, to practice stress and rhythm patterns in English, but not all students like that. It depends on the group; for some students, it's very effective and it works really well, but for other students, it's, 'Um, yeah'.

Anna provided an anecdote to support her observation that students' personalities or preferred learning styles can influence what teaching methodologies they find appealing, "I remember one student looked at me once [when] we were doing a jazz chant and said, 'This is silly.' So for him, it just didn't work." When asked if she thought his dislike of the activity was due to cultural or demographic factors, Anna replied,

I think [it] depends on the students. Some students really get into that kind of thing and then other students just think – they don't want to feel like they're playing games or, you know, things like that. They're more serious. They want just that more traditional approach.

Anna's observation can be seen as related to findings of Kyungsim Hong-Nam and Alexandra G. Leavell (2006), who found that although cultural trends in preferred learning styles and strategies have been observed to exist, individual students of a particular nationality or language group may show differences in preferred learning styles or strategies as compared to their peers.

Finding 28: Data from the student focus group and face-to-face interviews with faculty suggest that significant differences in the language learning needs between individual students who are from different cultural or language groups might exist.

While it is acknowledged that students of Saudi Arabian origin were overrepresented in the focus group by approximately 13 percent as compared to the ELDI population as a whole, it is notable that during the focus group discussion, vocabulary and communicative grammar as language learning needs were only mentioned by Saudi Arabian students; when speaking of their perception of language learning necessities, lacks, and wants (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), students from other countries discussed language learning needs solely through the framework of the four discrete language skills (Cummins, 2001; Jordan, 1997) of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. It is argued that this suggests that there might be a cultural difference in how Saudi Arabians, and perhaps other students from Arabic-speaking cultures, conceptualize language or language teaching. Likewise, there was a clear difference in how the need for English was expressed by the Saudi Arabian participants and participants from other countries. While all eight participants who spoke of their perception as to why they needed to learn English

placed their need within the context of *global English* (Crystal, 2003), Esperanza, Angelique, and Wei explained their need in terms of gaining the ability to communicate across cultures through English; whereas, Almas, Kalila, Ali B., Farah, and Mahir cited the opportunities for career advancement that come with proficiency in English.

Similarly, during the interviews, all the faculty participants, with the exception of Anna, expressed the beliefs that individual students from different cultural or language groups generally differ in their language learning needs. For example, Lori spoke at length as to the trends she has observed concerning the different discrete language skills with which different students struggle; citing Arabic students, Lori claimed they tend to “like speaking a lot” as “they’re not really a reading and writing culture.” Lori compared her experiences with Arabic students to those with students from East Asia:

[Arabs] don’t have a lot of formal background with learning English in their schools, whereas Asians often have learned English since they were in middle school. [Asian students] will come over here, and the biggest challenge they have is getting their listening, speaking, and contextual language skills built up instead of being low-grammar vocabulary banks. So, I think you’ll have one or two Asian students who are really working with making their knowledge turn into practical skills. We have a lot of Arab students, but of course we’re recruiting in Arab countries. We’ve found a rich oil field, so to speak, of people who are coming over and have pretty basic skills overall. They just haven’t had exposure [to English] so much; most of their movies are dubbed, so they haven’t really even had the experience of hearing the language and reading the subtitles underneath.

Lori contrasted the difficulties her native Arabic- or Chinese-speaking students have with the relative ease native Spanish or French-speaking students seem to have in progressing through the levels of ELDI.

It's rare that we get Spanish speakers at the beginner level, because several of them usually have like a false-beginner type thing. French speakers can often progress through our lower levels pretty fast, and maybe even jump a level.

Lori also spoke of her observations of how students from certain cultures acculturate to mixed-gendered classrooms:

The women tend to really push the men [in the classroom]; that's been a thing that I've noticed. [The women] are somewhat reluctant to be too smart in the classroom. They'll still defer to the men or if there's another woman in the room, they'll definitely want to work with her as opposed to working with a male partner.

When asked if she was speaking of Arabic-speaking students specifically, Lori clarified that she was drawing from her observations of her Arabic-speaking students; however, she also expressed the opinion that Asian students have similar cultural views, stating that they tend to “defer to the man and defer to the older person in the room.” Lori expanded upon her observations on how male and female students from these cultures interact in the classroom:

The women that we get here, the Arabic women in particular, tend to be pretty remarkable. They've been leaders already in their fields and in their studies. If you can tap into that, and use that motivation that they have, then they tend to pull the guys along a little bit.

Lori's observation of the generally high academic achievement of women from the Middle East and North Africa is in line with empirical research on the subject (*e.g.*, Fryer & Levitt, 2009) that

find that female students in these countries generally show greater academic achievement, particularly in mathematics and science, than male students. Finally, Lori also observed that the beginner-level international students she has taught in the program don't often seem to desire to pursue degrees in the liberal arts or social sciences, which Lori attributed to cultural reasons, stating that "among Chinese and Arabic cultures, often they are tracked, in a way, to go into a field that's going to be more of a money-making one."

Arthur's experiences with Saudi students led him to make similar observations as Lori; concerning the primacy of orality within their culture, Arthur claimed,

Culturally, speaking is more important than most other skills, and so that manifests itself in their speaking abilities in English. They're not generally encouraged to write in their native language, and the teaching styles that many of them are familiar with in their home country as far as with English follows that, as well as with reading.

Arthur expanded upon his perception of the impact this cultural view has upon what language learning strategies Saudi students choose to employ:

There are more students from other cultural backgrounds who come here and say, "Yes, I read for fun." It is extremely difficult to find a Saudi student who says, "Yes, I read for fun." They exist, but they're very close to being a unicorn. So their style of learning is very much the instructor tells the information, [and] they hopefully memorize it because they're not taking notes. They're memorizing it somehow based on what they hear, I guess. They'll take pictures of PowerPoint slides and what's displayed on the screen, and memorize based on that.

When asked if the Saudi students' habit of taking pictures with handheld electronic devices of what the teacher displayed on the board or screen was evidence of a preference for visual learning, Arthur replied,

They're either visual or they're experiential [learners]. You can have a student who you can have a conversation [with] and not even recognize that the student might be an intermediate level student based on the conversation. Their spoken English, frequently, is much, much more capable. So I think it's probably a combination of experiential and auditory learning rather than visual.

During her interview, Linda spoke of the observations she has made concerning the specific language learning needs of East Asian students based on her experiences with them in her classroom. When asked if she had noticed any demographic trends in how beginning-level students learn, Linda stated,

I don't want this to sound like a stereotype, but I've noticed certain trends in the ways students learn. I've noticed that with my Asian students, for years I taught Japanese university, often their speaking levels are very good, but they almost never want to speak and don't seem to want to make an error. (Linda)

Drawing from her past experiences in the classroom, Linda contrasted the willingness to communicate (Yashima, 2002) of East Asian students with Middle Eastern students':

[East Asian students'] reading and writing levels are really good, but it's really hard to get them to speak. Then when you get students like a lot of the Middle Eastern and Saudi students, they're not afraid to talk. They talk a lot. They'll have a conversation, but they can't hear their own errors; and so, they have a very inflated view of how well they speak. I don't know if they get that just being able to speak and have normal

conversation doesn't always count as proficiency. Often [Arabic-speaking students] have a lot of difficulty with spelling, reading, and writing, which I think makes sense because they're coming from a completely different system. Well, then again, so are the Japanese, but, somehow it's harder for [native Arabic speakers].

Linda reported that she believed differences in language learning needs were most salient in culturally-mixed classes:

[Middle-Eastern students] are not afraid to speak; so when you have them in mixed classes, I've definitely noticed those cultural trends. My Kazakh students that I've had are really focused on grammar, and really focused on scores and correct ways of doing things. I find that my Taiwanese students, the ones I've had, seem a little more relaxed in terms of speaking and trying things.

During her interview, Carmen expressed that she had perceived differences in language learning needs between the different cultural and language groups represented in her classroom; however, as per Finding 27, she also expressed that within those groups, individual differences exist:

It's a beautiful thing how you can see how people's educational backgrounds can inform their learning and the teaching styles, [yet] still be open for exceptions and different personalities; everybody's different. (Carmen)

On the other hand, Anna disagreed with the notion that trends in language learning needs by culture or language group could be identified at all; when asked if she had noticed any sort of cultural or language group trends in language learning needs, Anna responded,

I haven't, actually. I think each group seems to be different, and they're different together as a group. You know, [students] have individual differences, but then when

people get together, it's like they form their own way of being with each other. So I never feel like it's the same every semester, and that's what I love about teaching, too. It always seems to be different. And, no, I haven't really noticed any trends there. I would say that in general, it doesn't seem like most of the students enjoy writing. Reading or writing doesn't seem to be something that most students enjoy - especially writing. Like, it's hard for me to get them excited about that. I try to foster that in class and make it seem fun and like it isn't just work.

On the other hand, Anna did indicate that she felt there are generational differences in language learning needs; Anna stated that she had observed a trend in how younger students conceptualize teaching and learning:

Sometimes I feel like younger students expect to be entertained, and that's a newer thing for me. I've been teaching for 23 years, so I have noticed a difference there. I try to make my lessons fun, but I don't view myself as an entertainer. So, I think that we do have different views of teaching and learning.

Theoretical Proposition: Influence of Institutional Marginalization

The fourth research question was designed to explore the *a priori* theoretical proposition (Yin, 2014) that the marginalization experienced by faculty of American university-affiliated Intensive English programs within their hosting institutions (Case, 1998; Jenks & Kennell, 2012; Lin et al., 2004; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Stanley, 1994; Szasz, 2010) might influence the willingness of faculty to fully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level international students enrolled in their programs. Data collected from on-site observation, document analysis, and faculty participants' interviews were used to answer this question. The data were analyzed within the study's theoretical framework, paying particular attention to

reference group theory (Merton, 1968) as applied to the context of Intensive English programs (Case, 1998); as a result, one major finding emerged from the data. Table 4.12 summarizes the finding, followed by an in-depth discussion of the theoretical proposition as worded in Research Question 4.

Table 4.12.

Summary of Findings of Theoretical Proposition

<p>R. Q. 4: In what ways, if any, does the marginalization of Intensive English program faculty and administration in academia influence the willingness of Intensive English programs to fully accommodate beginner-level international students' language learning needs?</p>	<p>Finding 29: While all (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants indicated that they perceive they experience marginalization within their hosting institution, there is no evidence that this perception influences their willingness to fully accommodate the language learning needs of the beginner-level students enrolled in their program.</p>
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Finding 29: While all (5 out of 5 [100%]) of the faculty participants indicated that they perceive they experience marginalization within their hosting institution, there is no evidence that this perception influences their willingness to fully accommodate the language learning needs of the beginner-level students enrolled in their program.

The theoretical proposition that marginalization experienced by university-affiliated Intensive English program instructors and administrators within their hosting institutions might influence the willingness of these programs to fully accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level students was developed out of a comprehensive review of the scholarly literature on Intensive English programs. As such, the theoretical framework of the study incorporates the findings of Rod Ellis Case (1998), who found that the instructors and administrators in the Intensive English program he studied experienced a tension between identifying as a member of the program and as a member of the larger community of mainstream university faculty.

Research Question 4 was designed to test the theoretical proposition that accommodating the

language learning needs of beginner-level international students might be perceived as entailing a threat to the perception of the program's academic rigor by the wider university community, thus threatening the perception of Intensive English program instructors and administrators' status as full members of the community of mainstream university faculty.

In order to test the theoretical proposition, during face-to-face interviewing, the faculty participants were asked which term with which they identified more: "ELDI faculty" or "MU faculty" (or "administration" in the case of Arthur); with the notable exception of Arthur, all participants stated that they identify as ELDI faculty, as opposed to identifying as MU faculty. When asked which group she identified with more, Carmen replied, "I would say [ELDI] faculty;" Carmen however then hedged her answer by adding "but again, I haven't been here that long." Similarly, Lori also identified herself as ELDI faculty; when asked why she identified more with ELDI than with MU, Lori explained, "Because we don't really integrate ourselves into the university; we are like a private language school that is connected to the university." Anna's reasoning for why she identified primarily as ELDI faculty did not draw as clear-cut a separation between the ELDI and MU as Lori did, yet like all of the faculty participants, Anna perceived the ELDI as qualitatively different from other academic units on MU's campus. When asked why she identified as ELDI faculty, Anna explained,

[ELDI] is a part of [MU], but we are our own school and we are connected to the [International Programs Center]. I view the school as like a separate school, but part of [MU]. Our students aren't matriculated in a traditional sense, you know; I mean, we do have a few students who have been conditionally admitted, but not, of course, at the lower levels.

The perception held by Lori and Anna of the ELDI as a school within a school was also shared by Linda, who stated that she “definitely [identifies with ELDI] because [ELDI] is part of [MU] but it’s separate.” On the other hand, Arthur, perhaps owing to his role as an administrator, expressed a different perspective on general perception of institutional marginalization within MU reported by the other faculty participants. Arthur reported that the ELDI was currently undergoing a process of “re-integration into the university,” and that because of this, he was starting to see the boundaries between his work for ELDI and for the larger MU campus beginning to blur:

It’s really hard to pull out what it means to be [an ELDI] administrator and what it means to be a [MU] administrator. To me, because I’m an external hire, and the timing of it, I sort of see them as being largely the same thing. There are certainly aspects where, when it comes to supporting the faculty or working to champion what we do on campus, I’m definitely [an ELDI] administrator. But in other ways, where I’m providing data to the labor relations people for union negotiations, that’s not really [an ELDI] thing; that’s a [MU] administration thing. We’re working with the registrar’s office to integrate our courses into the scheduling system. That’s a [MU] administrator thing. So, I think it depends on what I’m doing. Ultimately, these things that I’m doing as a [MU] administrator I think are for the most part for the benefit of [ELDI]; but not everything is for the benefit [of ELDI], some of it’s because of a some higher up’s requirement.

Turning to how the faculty participants believe their program is perceived by the greater campus community, the general consensus of the participants was that the value of ELDI was increasingly being recognized by various parts of MU. When asked if she felt the ELDI was respected within MU, Lori stated,

I feel [ELDI] is either unknown or it's that typical story of "Well, if you speak the language, you can teach the language." I think as we move more and more into international students, [the rest of MU is] starting to recognize the needs of the international students, especially when we're not getting as many Europeans and, now, we're getting more Chinese students; they're really recognizing there is a special need. So I guess it's in transition, where people are starting to recognize that we might have something to offer, but not to the point where [ELDI] is respected, necessarily. It's more like, "Okay, maybe you guys have something that you could offer us, but you're not real professors and you're not experts in your field."

Lori's perception that within MU that recently there is increasing recognition of the program's utility to its hosting institution was echoed by Anna:

I think our position has become more valuable. Especially recently, because more and more international students are attending MU, especially students from China. What the professors are finding is that the students, even though they had good scores to get them into MU, have a lot of trouble, especially with writing academic papers. Recently, we had a professional development day at ELDI, and someone from the MU writing center came here and [now] we might start working together a little bit more. (Anna)

On the other hand, Linda reported that she felt so isolated from the greater campus community that she did not have a clear idea of how the ELDI was viewed by the rest of MU. However, Linda reported that she has heard some second-hand feedback that suggested the ELDI was viewed positively by others at MU. When asked if she felt ELDI was respected on campus, Linda stated, "I don't know honestly." Linda elaborated that the reason she didn't know was because she hadn't "talked to enough people to know their opinion." However, Linda added,

I've heard that when staff at [ELDI] have done international student orientation to try to help students at [MU] to adjust the feedback from the rest of the campus was very good. I think they appreciated the efforts that were being done, and maybe that they'd like some more help. So that's a good thing, but other than that I don't really know. I wish I did, but I don't. (Laughs)

However, despite the examples of increased integration with MU and greater perception of ELDI's value as an academic unit, the faculty participants did report instances of marginalization within the hosting institution, particularly the status of postsecondary ESOL as a valid and rigorous academic discipline. For example, Carmen emphatically stated that although she has taught ESL for 20 years she is going to be "defensive [her] whole life" concerning her professional status. Prior to teaching at the ELDI, Carmen taught at a community college located in the same state as MU. When telling people that she now teaches at MU, Carmen reported that most people seem to be impressed; however, when she mentions that she teaches in MU's Intensive English program, she perceives that they view her job as less prestigious than if she were to teach in other departments or disciplines at the institution. During her interview, Linda also provided several examples of marginalization she has experienced due to her involvement in postsecondary ESOL. Linda related that she "heard from [ELDI] teachers that they feel that other teachers don't feel like what we're doing is like real teaching." Linda also mentioned that these attitudes exist within the discipline of TESOL as well:

There is a friend of mine [who teaches ESL] who wanted a position and didn't get it. She made a comment to me one day, "Well, you know, it's not like you guys are real university professors," and I felt like, "I am a real teacher, and I worked very hard for my degrees!" I work very hard every day with my students, but it's kind of like I think

because we're doing written evaluations and not grades [that] there's sort of this assumption that what we're doing is not real. [So] we're not like professors, but I don't understand that because I know professors who just put a presentation up on the SMART Board, do a lecture, and that's it. I don't see them busting their asses to get the energy going in the room, and I don't understand why that's more real than what I'm doing.

Linda also explained that she perceived tension existing between ELDI and MU's School of Education's Master's of Education in TESOL program. According to Linda, one of the professors involved in MU's TESOL program strongly believes in providing students with constant error correction in the classroom. On the other hand, the pedagogy of the ELDI follows the communicative language teaching approach (Alexander, 2012; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Richards, 2001; Robinson, 1991), in which development of fluency is valued over grammatical competence. Similar to many other Intensive English programs (Call & Young, 1998), the ELDI has a partnership with its hosting institution's language education program in which Master's students gain practical experience teaching in the ELDI's classes. As such, when students from MU's TESOL program arrive to teach classes in the ELDI, Linda found that they subscribe to the theories on error correction held by the professor in the School of Education; Linda reported that she perceives the students and faculty of the TESOL program as viewing the communicative language teaching approach of the ELDI as not very academically rigorous.

Nevertheless, despite the experiences of marginalization within the hosting institution reported by the faculty participants, there was no evidence that these experiences have influenced their willingness to fully accommodate the needs of beginner-level students as the faculty participants, for the most part, do not seek membership in the community of mainstream MU faculty. Indeed, when asked if he felt the accommodation required for beginner-level students in

any way threatened the perception the academic rigor within ELDI by the rest of MU, Arthur replied,

No, I don't think so. Because although we're on a higher education campus, the university provides social outlets for matriculated students, and I don't really see what we do in very much a different light. The university doesn't teach undergrads how to go to the grocery store, but they provide workshops on financial planning. They don't have to do that. We take the students to the [fitness center]; the university provides the [fitness center] for all students. So I don't think that the things that we do for beginning level students are in contrast, contradictory, or hugely different from what the university provides for the rest of the matriculated population.

It is argued that Arthur's views might evidence a belief that the work the ELDI does in helping beginner-level international students acculturate to academic life on an American campus is merely the counterpart to the first-year domestic student orientation programs provided by the hosting institution.

Analysis, Interpretation, and Synthesis of Findings

This case study used naturalistic inquiry to collect qualitative data by conducting face-to-face interviews with faculty participants, a focus group discussion with international student participants, document collection, and four on-site observations; the qualitative data collection and analysis was informed by the results of a needs analysis questionnaire that was administered, in two forms, to both faculty participants and international student participants in their native languages. Out of a total population of 20 beginner-level international students, 15 participated in completing the questionnaire and 11 participated in the focus group discussion; all four instructors assigned to teach the beginner-level band of courses in the program during the time of

the study, as well as the associate director of the program, participated in the face-to-face interviews. Two instructors and the associate director completed the needs analysis questionnaire prior to the interviews. The data collected were coded, analyzed, and organized by research question and then by categories and subcategories guided by the study's theoretical framework, as described in Chapter 1. The inquiry of the study was guided by the following four research questions, which are further divided into subquestions:

1. What are the academic English language learning needs perceived by beginner-level international students enrolled in an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States?
 - a. What information do beginner-level students believe is necessary to know in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?
 - b. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students believe are necessary in their current learning situation in order for them to successfully learn academic English?
 - c. What necessary information do beginner-level students believe they lack in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?
 - d. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students believe are lacking in their current learning situation?
 - e. What information do beginner-level students want to learn about English?
 - f. What language learning conditions do beginner-level students want in their current learning situation?

2. What are the academic English language learning needs of beginner-level students as perceived by the instructors and administrators of an Intensive English program affiliated with an institution of higher education located within the United States?
 - a. What information do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe is necessary to know in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?
 - b. What conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe are necessary in an Intensive English program in order for beginner-level students to learn academic English?
 - c. What necessary information do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students lack in order to effectively function in an English-speaking academic institution?
 - d. What language learning conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students lack in their current learning situation?
 - e. What do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students want to learn about English?
 - f. What language learning conditions do Intensive English program instructors and administrators believe beginner-level students want in an Intensive English program?
3. In what ways can Intensive English programs affiliated with institutions of higher education located within the United States accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level international students?
 - a. Are there significant differences in the language learning needs between individual students who share the same country of origin or native language group?

- b. Are there significant differences in the language learning needs between individual students who are from different countries of origin or native language group?
4. In what ways, if any, does the marginalization of Intensive English program faculty and administration in academia influence the willingness of Intensive English programs to fully accommodate beginner-level international students' language learning needs?

Analytic categories are directly aligned with each of this study's research questions and emerged from analysis of the findings presented earlier in the chapter. In the analysis, the researcher searched primarily for connecting patterns within the data as recommended by Yin (2014); a secondary level of analysis consisted of comparing and contrasting the emergent themes to the relevant theory and research found within previous literature.

The previous section of this chapter presented the findings of this study through organizing the data collected from interviews, focus group discussion, document analysis, on-site observation, and the needs analysis questionnaire by research question in order to produce a readable narrative. The purpose of this section is to provide the researcher's interpretation of these findings through the reconstruction of a more holistic perspective of the data that takes into account the literature on Intensive English Programs, English for Academic Purposes, and Second Language Learning and Pedagogy. The implications of these findings are intended to increase the understanding of what the perceptions of language learning needs of beginner-level international students enrolled in university-affiliated Intensive English programs held by students and faculty are, how programs can accommodate these needs, and the possible effect of institutional marginalization might have upon the willingness of program faculty to accommodate beginners' needs.

Analytic Category Development

In the process of developing analytic categories, the researcher revisited the findings that emerged from the study. Upon careful analysis of the concentrated responses in the data summary tables constructed, both within each sub-unit of analysis and through the case as a whole, themes and patterns emerged. The findings from the international student participants' responses to the needs analysis revealed that students perceived that speaking, particularly in an interactive and collaborative context, was a primary language learning need in both the target and learning situations. Analytic Category 1 was labeled "The Words to Do It" to reflect the strongly stated desire by many of the students for the development of their skill in speaking, as well as their knowledge of vocabulary and communicative grammar, that they shall employ in accomplishing their goals; Analytic Category 1 speaks to Research Question 1. Similarly, the findings from the faculty participants revealed that they perceive proficiency in conversational fluency in English as a prerequisite to development in the academic register of the language; as such, Analytic Category 2 was labeled "Town before Gown." Analytic Category 2 addresses the inquiry of Research Question 2. Additionally, the findings from the face-to-face interviews with the Intensive English program's faculty suggest that the instructors and administrators of the program perceive that accommodation of beginner-level international student needs requires the development of certain specialized characteristics on the part of the instructor; as such, Analytic Category 3 was labeled "The Specialists" to reflect this perception. Analytic Category 3 addresses Research Question 3. Likewise, Analytic Category 4 was termed "Cross-Cultural Sense-Making in the Classroom," which emerged from the findings that suggested a mismatch in perceptions between the student and faculty participants of beginner-level students' preferred language learning styles and strategies. As it is argued that accommodation of language learning

needs requires that they be properly identified, Analytic Category 4 also addresses Research Question 3. Finally, Analytic Category 5, which addresses Research Question 4, was labeled “The Islanders.” The metaphor of the island originated *en vivo* from Arthur’s face-to-face interview. The metaphor was employed by the researcher in the study’s analysis in an attempt to encapsulate the analytic context in which to understand the finding that the faculty participants do perceive marginalization within their hosting institution.

Analytic Category 1: The Words to Do It

Les Mots pour le Dire is an autobiographical novel by Marie Cardinal (2013) that was first translated and published in English as *The Words to Say It* in 1975. In the novel, Cardinal depicted in novelized form her seven-year experience with psychoanalysis to treat a psychosomatic illness. Through the interaction between herself and the psychoanalyst, Cardinal (2013), as protagonist in her novelized life-story, was able to heal both her body and mind by learning how to verbalize the childhood traumas that led to her illness. This novel inspired the title of the first analytic category that emerged from the findings of this study: just like the protagonist of Cardinal’s (2013) novel, the beginner-level international students who participated in this study expressed that they needed “words.” However, where Cardinal (2013) sought the words needed to be able to express and deal with her childhood fears, this study’s student participants desired “words” (*i.e.*, skill in speaking, grammar, and vocabulary) in order to be able to accomplish their goal of developing the prerequisite English proficiency necessary to enter into an institution of higher education in the United States so that they might reach their further goal of entering a high-status career as part of their membership in the community of globalized English-speakers. The findings that informed the analytical concepts that make up this category and the concepts’ grounding in previous scholarly literature are summarized in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13.

Relationship of Findings to Research Question 1 to Analytic Concepts and Grounding Theories or Studies

Findings	Analytic Concept	Grounding Theories or Studies
1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13	Languaging: Peer-to-Peer Dialog	Cummins (2001), Foster and Ohta (2005), Lee (2008), Ohta (2001), Suzuki (2012); Swain (1985); Swain and Lapkin (1998)
1, 2, 6, 11	Languaging: Concept-Based Instruction	Cummins (2001) Lantolf and Thorne (2006), Lantolf (2011), Swain et al. (2009)
4, 12	Activity Theory	Lantolf (2000), McCafferty, Roebuck, & Wayland (2001)

Languaging: Peer-to-Peer Dialog

It is argued that the findings aligned with Analytic Category 1 suggest the student participants perceived the need to develop their skill in speaking, along with acquisition of more knowledge of academic vocabulary and grammar, in order to be able to employ their knowledge of English to regulate further development of proficiency through group and self-dialogic interaction. The use of a second language as a cognitive tool to mediate one's learning in that language was termed by Merrill Swain (1985) as *languaging*. For second language learning (SLL) researchers working from the sociocultural approach, languaging describes the mediated language learning that occurs via an individual student's private speech, as well as through the negotiation of meaning that occurs through student-teacher and student-student interaction in the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) within a second language classroom (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Many researchers who situated their work within the sociocultural approach have argued that languaging is essential to the SLL process (e.g., Suzuki, 2012; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Swain, Lapkin, Knouzi, Suzuki, & Brooks, 2009).

Additionally, it is argued that the folk understanding of languaging expressed by the student participants in this study serves to support a sociocultural understanding of SLL; for example, recall Kalila's statement in Finding 1. Kalila stated her opinion that speaking is the most important discrete language skill to learn for functioning in an academic environment, as one needs to be able to interact with other people in order to learn. Presumably, Kalila wasn't formally familiar with concepts like negotiation of meaning or social mediation, yet her statement concerning language learning needs in the target context reveals that she, at some level, conceptualizes learning in a similar manner as sociocultural theorists do. Likewise, the assertions by both Farah and Almas that ability to proficiently speak English in social contexts assists with learning, as detailed in the third finding of the study, might also be reflections of a folk understanding of sociocultural concepts on the part of the participants, particularly other-regulation (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Similarly, this exchange during the focus group between the researcher and Esperanza concerning learning preferences can be interpreted as consistent with a sociocultural perspective on SLL:

Researcher: Do you like learning alone, in pairs, or in groups?

Esperanza: In pairs.

Researcher: Why?

Esperanza: Because if you don't know the pronunciation of the [word] the other person can help you.

Researcher: Do you like being in a pair with someone who speaks your first language?

Esperanza: Yes. Err, no, English.

Researcher: You like someone who you have to use English with?

Esperanza: Yes. Native speaker.

Researcher: You like working with a native speaker?

Esperanza: Yeah. Or teachers.

It can be argued that Esperanza's preference is a reflection of an implicit understanding of the classic Vygotskian definition of *microgenesis* (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013), as she describes the opportunity to appropriate new phonological information through interaction between an expert and novice in which learning occurs from mediated novice-expert (in this case, student-teacher) talk in the second language. The need for interaction between novice and expert was also expressed by Fadil when he explained why he desired a friendship with an American peer: "I don't have an American friend, but I hope that [I will] because I need to learn English with an American friend. Because I think this is good?" The rising intonation at the end of his statement seems to imply that Fadil wasn't sure of his assessment that interaction with an American friend would be conducive to his English development; however, it could also be suggestive of *microgenesis* occurring within the focus group itself, as Fadil was speaking to the researcher, whom the participants knew as an expert in the teaching of English as a second language. Perhaps Fadil, through collaborative talk with the researcher as focus group moderator, sought confirmation from an expert in second language pedagogy that his hunch concerning the appropriate language learning strategies for his learning situation was correct. From discussion with Carmen and Lori, the researcher learned that several of the focus group participants expressed that their motivation to participate in the focus group was to take advantage of an opportunity to practice their English with a native speaker in such a context; therefore, it is possible that Fadil, especially considering his strongly stated desire to interact with Americans, saw the focus group as a learning opportunity in and of itself.

However, whereas the classic Vygotskian view of ZPD interaction assumes a novice-expert dyad, current sociocultural theorists (*i.e.*, *Neo-Vygotskians*) argue that learning within the ZPD can result from languaging between peers through interactive collaborative pair or group tasks (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Recall that the results of Part II of the needs analysis questionnaire, as presented in Table 4.6, revealed that the student participants indicated a preference for learning through games and through pair work; it is argued that these two language learning strategy preferences match up well with a sociocultural understanding of SLL on the part of the students. For example, I-Jung Chen (2005) argued that language learning games have nine benefits, namely that games “are learner centered, promote communicative competence, create a meaningful context for language use, increase learning motivation, reduce learning anxiety, integrate various linguistic skills, encourage creative and spontaneous use of language, construct a cooperative learning environment, [and] foster participatory attitudes of the students.” In particular, Chen (2005) observed that “competition gave students a natural opportunity to work together and communicate using English with each other. Furthermore, by integrating playing and learning, students practiced the learned linguistic knowledge in a vivid and meaningful context. Many came to understand that they could successfully use English to accomplish a variety of tasks.” Likewise, action research situated within the classrooms of Nguyen Thi Thanh Huyen and Khuat Thi Thu Nga (2003) suggested that language games facilitated vocabulary acquisition more effectively than traditional language classroom instruction; similarly, a quantitative study by Hooshang Khoshsima, Amin Saed, and Arash Yazdani (2015) found a significant difference in vocabulary retention in a group that employed language games in vocabulary instruction. From a sociocultural perspective, these observations and results can be seen as supporting the idea that

the students' expressed preference for the collaborative, interactive, low-anxiety, and task-based instruction provided by language games is a reflection of their observation that such tasks are conducive for the socially-mediated language experience sociocultural theorists argue is necessary for SLL (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013).

Similarly, it is argued that the preference for pair work activities expressed by the student participants during the focus group, as well as through the needs analysis questionnaire, suggests that the student participants perhaps recognized the opportunities for languaging entailed in these types of classroom tasks. The efficacy of peer-to-peer languaging was supported by a study conducted by Pauline Foster and Amy Synder Ohta (2005), where transcripts of a pair work task involving students interviewing one another in the target language through a list of prompt questions were analyzed for instances of peer assistance and negotiation of meaning. Foster and Ohta (2005) found "evidence of learners repairing and rewording their own utterances, and assisting each other to both find the right form and to express meaning" (p. 424); Foster and Ohta (2005) also found evidence of "learners supporting each other, frequently expressing interest in what their interlocutor is saying and giving encouragement to continue" (pp. 424-425). Foster and Ohta (2005) argued that this evidence was reflective of successful use of the target language in the classroom. The findings of Foster and Ohta (2005) recall the earlier findings of Merrill Swain and Sharon Lapkin (1998) who found similar evidence for the efficacy of peer-to-peer languaging in the dialogs shared between two adolescent students in a French immersion class. Like Foster and Ohta (2005), Swain and Lapkin found evidence for the co-creation of knowledge through peer dialog during a collaborative classroom task.

With the findings of previous studies (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Khoshshima, Saed, & Yazdani, 2015; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Swain et al., 2009) in mind, it is posited that the desire to

increase conversational fluency, communicative grammar, and vocabulary expressed by the student participants as a language learning need, as detailed in the majority of the findings of Research Question 1, is reflective of an understanding of languaging on the part of the student participants. Why the participants might have such an understanding might be due to the fact that the ability to engage in languaging is of particular importance to international students in a university Intensive English program context, Cummins (2001) stated that the “essential aspect of academic language proficiency is the ability to make complex meanings explicit in either oral or written modalities by use of language itself” (p. 70). It is possible that the student participants gained an implicit understanding of languaging from the cognitive demands placed upon them when attempting to comprehend and use academic English. Likewise, it is possible that the preference expressed by the student participants of the study, as detailed in Findings 5 and 13, for attitudinally active language learning styles (*i.e.*, communicative and concrete) (Wong & Nunan, 2011) stems from a prior, and perhaps implicit, recognition of such strategies’ utility in languaging during the past language learning experiences (*e.g.*, games, pair work, service learning, etc.) cited by some of the student participants in the focus group as conducive to their English language development; this interpretation would be in line with findings by Rosemary DePetro Orlando (2011) who reported that students at one university-affiliated Intensive English program in northern New England identified collaborative dialog with their instructors and peers in the classroom as a main cause of improvement in their English proficiency.

Languaging: Concept-Based Instruction

Informed by student participant responses to the needs analysis questionnaire, it is posited that Findings 1, 2, 6, and 11 suggest some of the student participants perceive the need to learn language through concepts; specifically, the perception held by some student participants

that academic grammar and vocabulary are language learning needs could be an expression of the need for metalinguistic information. James P. Lantolf and Steven L. Thorne (2006) applied Vygotsky's belief that formal education is the development of learners' understanding of scientific concepts to SLL; Lantolf and Thorne (2006) argued that second language learning is inherently different from first language learning in that the language classroom cannot replicate the naturalistic context in which individuals learn their first language. Drawing upon cognitive linguistics, Lantolf and Thorne (2006) asserted that second language instruction should focus on learners' development of grammatical concepts, including languaging activities where learners use language to regulate and internalize their understanding of the concept. In other words, the participants who perceive a need for instruction in grammar and academic vocabulary might hold this perception as they identify the need for language about language (*i.e.*, metalanguage) while they talk themselves through the complex task of acquiring new grammatical forms. This was supported empirically when a study by Merrill Swain, Sharon Lapkin, Ibtissem Knouzi, Wataru Suzuki, and Lindsay Brooks (2009) showed that a relationship exists between linguistic performance on a classroom task and the quality and quantity of languaging on the part of the student.

Speaking specifically on the development of academic language, Cummins (2001), citing Vygotsky's concept of other-regulation (*i.e.*, scaffolding), argued that English language instruction should facilitate the progression of learners from mastery of context-embedded, cognitively undemanding tasks to context-reduced, cognitively demanding tasks as part of a program of study in which appropriate internal and external contextual support is built into the instruction. Cummins (2001) presented this support within a framework in which proficiency in the academic register of a language is developed within the interpersonal space of teacher-

student interactions within the classroom through a focus on meaning, language, and use. Having incorporated Cummins (2001) concept of interpersonal space into the framework of the study, it is argued that the need for academic vocabulary expressed by some student participants represents the need for meaning. Cummins (2001) argued that effective SLL requires an initial focus on meaning; within the academic register of a language, Cummins (2001) asserted that meaning requires that it must relate to prior experience and knowledge. This observation might shed light on the desire, as detailed in Finding 6, expressed by Kalila during the focus group for more vocabulary focusing on her intended major of Microbiology. Similarly, a recognition of the need to focus on language (Cummins, 2001) as part of academic language development could be what framed Tahir's perception that he requires more knowledge of vocabulary and grammar in order to speak well. Finally, languaging, termed by Cummins (2001) as "active language use" (p. 145), might be the motivation behind both Kalila's and Tahir's statements of need; Kalia desired the specialized vocabulary in order to be able to write on topics concerning her academic major, and Tahir desired academic vocabulary and grammar in order to better employ his speaking skill in the collaborative generation of knowledge through the socially-mediated learning tasks he encounters in the classroom.

Activity Theory

As suggested by the title of Analytic Category 1, it is argued that it is important to acknowledge that the student participants in this study are not engaged in the cognitively demanding task of learning a second language merely for its own sake, but that the findings of the study show they are studying English for the specific purpose of developing enough proficiency in the academic register of English so that they might achieve the prerequisite score needed on a test like the TOEFL in order to gain admission into a regular course of study at an

institution of higher education in the United States. As detailed in the study's literature review, recognition for the purpose of learning a language is a cornerstone of the English for Specific Purposes pedagogical approach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). Likewise, within the sociocultural theoretical approach, activity theorists have argued that tasks or activities are not only mediated by the physical or cognitive tools used to perform them, but are also mediated by the larger sociocultural context in which they occur. (Lantolf, ed., 2000; McCafferty, Roebuck, & Wayland, 2001; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). As reflected in the theoretical framework of the study, it is argued that the perception of language learning needs expressed by the student participants in the study can only be properly understood within the larger context in which the participants of the study are situated.

Findings 4 and 12 suggest that the student participants view their context as *global English* (Crystal, 2003); that is, the student participants view their task as gaining the proficiency in English necessary to participate in the globalized community of English speakers, first as international students, and then as individuals with the potential to communicate across cultures or enter high-status career tracks due to their ability to speak English and possession of a degree from an elite American university. As mentioned earlier, during the focus group, of the eight participants who spoke of the reason they felt they needed to learn English, all of them placed the need within the context of global English (Crystal, 2003). However, there was a divide between the Saudi Arabian participants and participants from other countries as to what the successful acquisition of English would afford them. Whereas the Saudi Arabian students cited the opportunities for entering into high-status, high-paying careers that come with proficiency in English, the other participants cited the potential for cross-cultural communication that comes with ability in English. One possible reason for this divide might be that many Saudi Arabian

students in the United States have been sponsored by their government as part of the King Abdullah Foreign Scholarship Program, which was established to develop Saudi Arabia's human capital "to fulfill the requirements of work markets across the kingdom in regions, universities and industrial cities" (Ministry of Education, 2010). As such, with activity theory (Lantolf, ed., 2000; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013) in mind, the goals of the scholarship program might be part of the larger sociocultural context in which the Saudi Arabian student participants understand their task of learning English. Indeed, the career-orientation of the Saudi Arabian participants in the study may assist in their progress through the ELDI; in her study of language learning background variables, Kim Hughes Wilhelm (1997) found that a career-orientated motivation to learn English was a predictor of success within an Intensive English program.

Summary

In summary, the primary theme that emerged from findings to Research Question 1 is that the students who participated in this study recognize the need to learn through languaging (Swain, 1985) so that they might achieve their goals of successfully gaining admission to an American university as well as being able to meaningfully participate in the community of global English (Crystal, 2003). It is argued that the student participants' expressed desire for improvement in their speaking, as a discrete language skill, as well as increased knowledge of academic vocabulary and grammar, evidence a want on the part of the student participants to expand their cognitive tool-box so that they might more effectively employ the target language in languaging tasks, like peer-to-peer dialog, in the language classroom. The findings to Research Question 1, particularly Findings 1, 2, 3 9, and 10, support previous findings of a study by Thinan Nakaprasit (2010) of language learning needs of international students in a Canadian university-affiliated Intensive English language program that found that the students in the

program perceived they lacked adequate instruction in speaking and listening, which served to increase their anxiety toward communication in both academic and social contexts. Additionally, activity theory (Lantolf, ed., 2000; McCafferty, Roebuck, & Wayland, 2001; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013) suggests that the student participants' perception of language learning needs is influenced by the greater context in which their language learning occurs. That many of the population from which the student participants were drawn had been sponsored by their government to study abroad as part of an effort to develop the human capital within their country might explain the heavy emphasis the participants placed on learning English in order to participate in a globalized economy and marketplace of ideas.

Analytic Category 2: Town before Gown

The emergent theme from the findings to Research Question 2 is that the faculty participants of the study perceive the necessity for beginner-level international students to gain conversational fluency in the social register of English before they begin study of academic language. The data gleaned from face-to-face interviews with the faculty participants, as well as from analysis of course syllabi and on-site observations suggest that the faculty participants hold this perception of beginner-level student language learning needs due to their orientation within the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach (Richards, 2001). Furthermore, data collected for the study suggest that the beginner-level students enrolled in the program do not necessarily accept the faculty participants' perception that academic language instruction cannot meaningfully occur at this proficiency level; as such, it is posited, using Cummins (2001) concept of interpersonal space, as understood in the study's theoretical framework, that the data show evidence of the faculty and beginner-level students in the program engaging in negotiation of the students' identities as learners in a postsecondary context. The relationship of the findings

to Research Question 2 to the concepts and theories that inform Analytic Theme 2 are detailed in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14.

Relationship of Findings to Research Question 2 to Analytic Concepts and Grounding Theories or Studies

Findings	Analytic Concept	Grounding Theories or Studies
14, 16, 18, 20	Teacher Beliefs in English for Academic Purposes	Alexander (2012); Richards (2001)
14, 21, 22, 24	Identity Negotiation in Interpersonal Space	Cummins (2001), Leki (2007)

Teacher Beliefs in English for Academic Purposes

In their discussion of affect in language teaching, Jane Arnold and H. Douglas Brown (1999) observed that both learner beliefs and teacher beliefs can strongly influence the outcome of learning; with this in mind, it is argued that it is important to acknowledge how the beliefs of the faculty participants influence their perception of beginner-level needs. Findings 14, 16, 18, and 20 of the study suggest that the faculty participants strongly perceive the necessity of conversational fluency (Cummins, 2001) for beginner-level students in both the target and learning situations before proficiency in academic English can be developed. This perception is perhaps typified best by Carmen's assertion that "at the lower levels, [the students] really need to focus on Basic English. Some come in asking for academic English but, I believe as an instructor of English that they need that foundation of Basic English first." Indeed, all of the faculty participants seemed to frame their understanding of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instruction through the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, in which interpersonal communication is both the ends and means of language study (Alexander, 2012; Richards, 2001). As Finding 18 detailed, an orientation toward CLT can be seen in the ELDI

language outcomes identified for beginner-level students; likewise, recall Arthur's statement, as detailed in Finding 14, that the curriculum of the ELDI is designed so that its beginner-level band of courses specifically focus on social English, with academic English instruction only beginning at the intermediate level. Nevertheless, Owlyn Alexander (2012) pointed out that within the postsecondary context,

There is pressure to begin teaching EAP as early as possible within a language programme and to achieve considerable gain over a short span of time. Learners with a level of proficiency as low as A1 (basic user) on the Common European framework of Reference (CEFR) want to study EAP. (p. 99)

Alexander (2012) also observed that the pedagogical assumptions that have shaped CLT have influenced the delivery of EAP content in the language classroom. Particularly, Alexander (2012) observed that the belief within CLT that all language learners, regardless of the specific purposes for learning the language, are assumed to need to know how to employ the target language to perform general, everyday social functions (*e.g.*, greetings, invitations, requests, etc.) has led to the assumption that specific varieties or registers of the language, such as EAP, are impossible to learn without this ground-level knowledge of social English and communicative grammar. Furthermore, Alexander (2012) claimed that the emphasis given within CLT to the development of speaking and listening as discrete language skills stems from a faulty analogy between first and second language learning, in which learners at low proficiency levels are often infantilized so they might learn the target language in the same manner as they learned their first language. Alexander (2012) cited current research in second language learning to argue that certain assumptions held by CLT are inappropriate for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instruction, particularly at low proficiency levels. Alexander (2012) noted that individuals who

are learning a second language after childhood generally possess communicative competence and literacy in their first language; therefore, these individuals already have a certain understanding about the way language functions. With this in mind, Alexander (2012) argued that if these individuals have had formal educational experience, then they might have developed the analytic ability that would allow for explicit instruction in grammar. Alexander (2012) concluded that second language learners, contra the assumptions of CLT, “do not need to be treated as first language learners, learning to listen and speak before reading and writing, or learning social functions and discussing personal topics when their purpose is to learn and use academic English” (p. 102).

However, the fact that social interaction was a linguistic task in the target situation of postsecondary study for the international students enrolled in the ELDI was cited by all of the faculty participants as necessitating instruction in social English. For example, Carmen identified everyday social communicative functions as part of her students’ target language tasks:

Since most of them want to be at university in the United States, [they’re going to use English in] their classes, the libraries, the restaurants, the supermarkets, the dorms... [with] landlords, and I think that’s what makes the beginning level actually really difficult is we want it to be an academic program, and yet they need so much of the social stuff.

An assumption of CLT identified by Alexander (2012) present in Carmen’s statement is the idea that beginner-level students need to develop a base of conversational/survival functions before study of academic English is possible; entailed within Carmen’s statement, however, is the acknowledgement that social English is part of international students’ ability to navigate campus life. On the other hand, Lori perceived her beginning-level students as desiring a focus on speaking due to her perception of their need for social English:

This lower level group may have some feelings of the functional English and the survival English that they have to have for being out in the real world. And so that's where maybe their speaking is so important to them, because they're not able to do what they need to do on a daily basis without the speaking that they crave. (Lori)

Whereas the desire for improvement in speaking expressed by the student participants in the study was interpreted in the study as reflective of a perception of need to improve their languaging (Swain, 1985) ability, it is posited that the statements by Carmen and Lori are representative of a perception on the part of the faculty participants that the students desire to improve their speaking skill for social functioning. While the findings to Research Question 1 do acknowledge the data that suggest the students see social functioning as a linguistic task, they also acknowledge that this is only half the story. It is possible that the assumptions embedded in the CLT approach, as explicated by Alexander (2012), influence the teaching beliefs held by the faculty participants in the study to focus their instruction on developing their beginning-level students' proficiency in social English.

Thus, it is argued that the influence of CLT upon the faculty participants of this study has caused many of the faculty participants in the study to conceptualize a separation between *town* (*i.e.*, the students' need for English the context of everyday social functioning) and *gown* (*i.e.*, the students' need for English in the context of academic study). For some of the faculty participants, the separation was clear-cut. For example, the statement by Arthur that academic language is only introduced into the curriculum starting at the intermediate level. Likewise, a statement by Carmen evidenced her belief that beginning-level students are somewhat removed from academic English:

The outreach that I've done has been when I taught the highest level, and I really wanted to know where they were going next; so, that was to talk to people who were in the Writing Center for that level. I think it's so far removed from the beginning students that it doesn't make any sense. There's no point in doing outreach [with] people who are working with matriculated students [when] talking about beginning students.

As can be seen from her statement, Carmen conceptualizes the work that she does with beginning-level students to be so separated from the language tasks that they will encounter in their regular course of study that it is not necessary to collect data on their target writing needs. Carmen's belief is perhaps influenced by the priority given to spoken language within CLT, particularly for the lower proficiency levels (Alexander, 2012). On the other hand, some of the faculty participants did not draw as fine a distinction between town and gown; while Lori did preface the following statement with a basic assumption of CLT, she implied that academic language production by students is possible at the beginning proficiency level:

They need to build some basic interaction skills before we even move onto academic ones, but debate can happen at a basic level. We can talk about whether people should drive at age 16 and have to come to some consensus at the end. It's an academic – what do you call it? Not *venue*, but *mode of interacting*, in that we're debating and I give them some terms about how to agree and disagree. But it's a topic that's somewhat social, so to speak.

Lori's use of a town topic in a gown mode was identified by Alexander (2012) as a “deep end strategy” (p. 108) in which instruction is focused toward performance in the academic register of the target language through scaffolded language tasks. Alexander (2012) argued that EAP instructors “frame their talk using genres and language functions, thus supporting students to

acquire procedural knowledge about discourse processes which they can reapply in the context of their own academic disciplines” (p. 108). It is suggested that Lori’s example fits into what Alexander (2012) might identify as appropriate EAP instruction for low proficiency students in that it provided a scaffolded language task in which the students can practice the discourse genre of classroom debate using already acquired social vocabulary.

Negotiation of Identity

In his book, *Negotiating Identities: Education for Empowerment in a Diverse Society*, Cummins (2001) presented his framework for academic language learning in which Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013) is conceptualized as an area in which *negotiation of identity* occurs along with socially-mediated construction of knowledge; Cummins (2001) referred to this area as *interpersonal space*. The concept of interpersonal space (Cummins, 2001) was employed in the theoretical framework of the study to understand how the beliefs of the faculty and beginner-level student participants interact to either support or discourage the student participants’ investment in their identity as international students in a postsecondary institution. Cummins’ (2001) framework for academic language learning bears many similarities to Ilona Leki’s (2007) concept of *socioacademic relations*. Like Cummins (2001), Leki (2007) drew upon sociocultural theory to argue that language learning is a socially-mediated process in which interactions between learners, their peers, and instructors entail the development of social relationships through joint activity; Leki (2007) asserted that the interactions English learners (*e.g.*, international students, Generation 1.5 students, etc.) have with faculty and fellow students during their courses, as well as the development of their identities as learners of English, have a great effect upon how English learners experience postsecondary education. Anne-Marie Núñez, Cecilia Rios-Aguilar, Yasuko Kanno, and Stella M. Flores

(2016) posited that an implication of Leki's (2007) socioacademic relations theory is that student-faculty interactions in the classroom shape "instructors' perceptions of their capabilities" (p. 77).

These concepts (Cummins, 2001; Leki, 2007; Núñez, Rios-Aguilar, Kanno, & Flores, 2016) along with Bonnie Norton's (2000) concept of the *right to speak*, frame the understanding that Findings 14, 21, 22 and 24 seem to suggest that the faculty participants' orientation to CLT practices caused most of them to perceive their beginning-level students' identity as future users of the academic register of English, as opposed to postsecondary students who currently possess a need for academic English. However, at the same time, most of the faculty participants recognized that their students often conceptualized their identity differently. An example of recognition of identity negotiation on the part of the faculty participants can be found in this statement by Arthur: "If a student puts forth a desire and has the ability to do some of the academic work, [Lori], in particular, will start pushing students towards some of that academic material. But that's not a requirement of the curriculum." Arthur's observation shows evidence of successful negotiation of identity occurring in the interpersonal space created by the interactions between the instructors and the beginning-level students in their classrooms; Arthur noted that Lori responds to the assertion of an academic identity, (*i.e.*, claiming the right to speak [Norton, 2000] as a student in higher education) by individual students through a display of motivation and ability with providing them with increased access to academic language learning. In his framework, Cummins (2001) argued that development of academic language requires a maximal amount of cognitive engagement on the part of the student; however, Cummins (2001) also argued that a "reciprocal relationship" (p. 126) exists between cognitive engagement and identity investment. Therefore, Cummins (2001) posited that maximal cognitive engagement

requires students to be maximally invested in their identity as a learner, as well as the corollary that maximal identity investment is required for maximal cognitive engagement. As can be seen, Cummins' (2001) framework bears much similarity to Norton's (2000) claim that language learning and identity are mutually constitutive. Thus, it is argued that Norton's (2000) concept of the right to speak can be seen in Arthur's appending his observation of Lori's willingness to negotiate learner identity with a statement implying that such negotiation is ancillary to the ELDI's perception of what most beginner-level students need at that proficiency level, as per the CLT orientation of its curriculum, and that such negotiation is reserved for those students who can demonstrate proficiency in those social functions that CLT assumes to be prerequisite for academic language learning.

Using concepts from Cummins (2001), Leki (2007), and Norton (2000) as an analytical lens, it is claimed that the beliefs concerning the necessity of conversational fluency before academic language development held by most of the ELDI faculty as detailed in the study's findings might influence the faculty participants' perception of beginner-level students' identity; consequently, the beginner-level student participants perceived the need to assert their identity as students desiring to engage in academically rigorous programs of study. Observations like Arthur's suggest that, at least in Lori's classes, some beginner-level students successfully claim the right to speak (Norton, 2000) as undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in a program affiliated with an elite American research university. Indeed, during her interview, Carmen provided further evidence of successful negotiation of identity on the part of the students. Commenting on the materials used in her beginning-level courses, Carmen stated,

We're not using basic adult [education] books; we're using introduction to Academic English books. So, I think the book choices make a huge difference. Having said that, I

think those are the books that students want. Students here don't want books where you're talking about what you say to your neighbors.

As can be seen in Carmen's statement, she perceived the want for academic English among her beginner-level students. Despite Arthur's assertion that the ELDI's curriculum for beginner-level students is focused on social English, Carmen provided evidence that ELDI is not only aware of its beginner-level students' desire for academic English instruction, but that it accommodates those desires through textbook choice. Indeed, like Lori, Carmen provided evidence that she combines town and gown within her class, as part of the identity negotiation within the interpersonal space created in her classroom:

[In the students'] textbook, [the unit] was about how to kick an unhealthy habit. So, to begin the unit, we talked about body parts, typical illnesses, going to the doctor, and to CVS because I wanted them to have those life skills; but I think they feel like they are here at [MU] and they are here for academic English. As much as they want and need the social, I think if it were all social, they would actually be less happy.

It can be argued that Carmen's insertion of life skills instruction into an ostensibly academic language-focused textbook chapter is an example of how she navigates the tension between her beliefs, informed by CLT, as to what her beginning-level students need and what she perceives her students want. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argued that conflict between objective (*i.e.*, instructor or course designer) perception of needs and subjective (*i.e.*, learner) perceptions negatively impacts student motivation. The researcher believes that Carmen's approach is in line with the recommendations of Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who claimed "[t]here is little point in taking an [English for Specific Purposes] approach, which is based on the principle of learner involvement, and then ignoring the learners' wishes and views" (p. 58). In a similar vein, it is

clear from her comments that Carmen's students have successfully articulated their identity as international students in her classroom, and, in response to their claiming the right to speak (Norton, 2000), Carmen reported that she attempts to appropriately accommodate their perception of needs as determined by their identity. Taking the arguments of Cummins (2001), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), and Norton (2000), it can be argued that conflict in perception of language learning needs could be representative of a greater conflict in perception of learner identity, which is resolved in the classroom through negotiation of identity.

While it is argued that the ELDI's CLT orientation (Alexander, 2012; Richards, 2001) led the faculty participants to perceive beginner-level language learning needs to entail development of conversational fluency before academic language instruction, ironically, the assumptions of CLT might also provide the framework from which the faculty participants engage in the negotiation of identity from which the beginner-level students gain access to academic language instruction. Several scholars in TESOL and applied linguistics (Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Nunan, 1988; Richards, 2001) have argued that learner-centeredness is a characteristic of CLT; one aspect of learner-centeredness found in CLT is the idea of the *negotiated syllabus* (Clarke, 1991; Richards, 2001) in which content, methodology, assessment, materials, etc. are, fully or in part, negotiated between students and instructors. Willingness to negotiate the syllabus was expressed by Lori when commenting on the priority given to speaking tasks as target needs expressed by the student participants on needs analysis questionnaire, "So what's my reaction? It makes me feel like we, according to their needs, could offer them more speaking activities as customers that have their eye on what they think they need." Again, entailed in Lori's statement is the recognition of student perception of language learning need as based on their identity as

international students in an elite postsecondary institution with the intention of pursuing rigorous programs of study (e.g., Law, Microbiology, Accounting, etc.).

Alexander (2012) argued that the central assumptions of CLT are antithetical to appropriate EAP instruction for low-proficiency levels; however, the researcher believes that the data of this study suggest that the appropriateness of CLT within EAP might still be an open question within the context of beginner-level international students enrolled in an Intensive English program while living abroad. The findings of the study which suggest that both the student and faculty participants recognized a need for social English in the present and target situations support Robert R. Jordan's (1997) claim that when "EAP courses are held in English-speaking countries it is highly desirable to include some practice in the spoken language needed for everyday living" (p. 76). As Findings 2 and 3 show, the student participants perceive themselves as having both town and gown identities. While most of the findings gleaned from faculty participant data suggest that the faculty acknowledge their beginner-level students' town identity, data from the face-to-face interviews with the faculty participants indicates that negotiation of identity (Cummins, 2001) does occur within ELDI's classrooms when beginner-level students assert their right to speak (Norton, 2000) in their gown identity.

Summary

From the findings to Research Question 2, the emergent theme was that the faculty participants perceived that the international students enrolled in the beginning-level band of courses within their program need a foundation of core communicative grammatical structures within the context of social, everyday functions that, consequently, prioritizes the discrete skills of speaking and listening over reading and writing. It is possible that this perception stems from the specific orientation to communicative language teaching (CLT) (Alexander, 2012; Richards,

2001) within the program's curriculum for beginner-level courses. However, there is evidence of negotiation of identity within the interpersonal space created from the interactions between students and instructors within the classroom (Cummins, 2001); in particular, comments by Carmen and Lori suggest that the beginning-level students have successfully negotiated their identity as international students within their ELDI courses, and from this, they have been provided with access to academic language instruction that further affirms their identity as postsecondary students. It is possible that identity negotiation is part of the process in which conflict between instructors' and learners' perceptions of language learning needs are resolved (Cummins, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Norton, 2000). Finally, while an orientation to CLT might inform the faculty participants' perception that beginner-level students need to develop social communicative language before academic language instruction is possible, a CLT orientation might also inform the faculty participants' willingness to negotiate in interpersonal space (Cummins, 2001) issues of both student identity and teaching and learning.

Analytic Category 3: The Specialists

The analytic theme that emerged from the findings that, in part, answer Research Question 3 is that the accommodation of beginner-level student language learning needs requires both a specialized teaching methodology and certain professional *dispositions* (Dewey 1916/1944; Diez & Murrell, 2010) on the part of the instructor. This analytic theme developed from the data which suggested a perception exists among the faculty participants that beginner-level instruction, and even the beginner-level instructors themselves, are qualitatively different than the instruction and instructors found in higher proficiency level classes. This perception was emphatically expressed by Carmen, who observed, “[I]t’s completely different – it’s completely and utterly different than teaching a high level academic class.” Carmen’s

observation was representative of the faculty participants' views toward beginner-level classes. Furthermore, many of the faculty participants spoke to the idea that they were considered specialists. Anna, for instance, observed,

I've been at [ELDI] for ten years and this is my specialty. I'm considered a specialist with beginners and a lot of people ask me for advice here. I enjoy teaching beginners, and I don't mind being in a room full of students who don't even know the alphabet. I've had students come in not knowing the alphabet; so, I'm comfortable with that. I enjoy it. I see so much progress during the semester, [and] that's very rewarding. The students do tend to be a little dependent on me, but I don't mind that.

Similarly, Lori spoke of the perception she has observed other ELDI faculty have toward beginner-level instruction:

I feel like it's not that they couldn't teach beginner levels, but they just somehow feel like it's a thing that they're going to leave to the experts. Like, 'you guys know how to talk to them, and you guys are laying down the groundwork that's going to help us succeed with them later.' On the other hand, it can be a little bit of a blame game of 'how could you have let this person pass into my level because they can't even write a subject/verb/object sentence.'

From his perspective as an administrator, Arthur noted, "There are some skills that are easier for some people to teach and some skills that are easier for other people to teach. [Proficiency] level is kind of like that, too." As detailed in Findings 17 and 25, according to the faculty participants, the key characteristics that differentiate beginning-level instruction and instructors are instructional design and appropriate teacher dispositions. The relationship of the findings to

Research Question 3 to the concepts and theories that inform Analytic Theme 3 are detailed in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15.

Relationship of Findings to Research Question 2 to Analytic Concepts and Grounding Theories or Studies (Analytic Category 3)

Findings	Analytic Concepts	Grounding Theories or Studies
5, 9, 10, 13, 17	Cognitive Load/Working Memory	Baddeley & Hitch (as cited in Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013), Ohta (2001), Sweller (1998, 2015)
25	Teacher Dispositions	Boykin & Noguera, (2011), Dewey (1916/1944), Diez & Murrell (2010), Leki (2007)

Cognitive Load/Working Memory

Finding 17 detailed the belief held by all five of the faculty participants that appropriate beginner-level instructional design requires lessons that are made up of a series of language learning activities or tasks centered around a particular language skill or topic that last no more than 15 minutes in length and are each aimed towards different learning modalities (*i.e.*, visual, auditory, kinesthetic, etc.). It is argued that this belief might stem from the implicit recognition on the part of the faculty that beginner-level students are limited by the capacity of their working memory when engaged in complex, academic language tasks (Ohta, 2001; Sweller, 1998, 2015); therefore, it is possible that the faculty participants have developed this perception as such an instructional design might appropriately deal with the *cognitive load* (Sweller 1998, 2015) placed on beginner-level students when faced with the cognitively demanding task of learning academic English (Cummins, 2001). It is argued that evidence for this belief can be found in Findings 5, 9, 10, and 13, which support the argument of Ohta (2001) that languaging, particularly peer-to-peer dialog, provides a scaffold in which the limitations of an individual student's working memory can be overcome. Likewise, it is possible that the concern expressed by the faculty participants

for the mental and physical fatigue experienced by beginner-level students, as detailed in Finding 17, that was cited to justify designing lessons consisting of a series of varied language learning activities is an implicit recognition of the high cognitive load academic language tasks entail at low-proficiency levels. For example, the differences between instruction in beginner-levels and at other proficiency levels were noted by Arthur, who said, “From my own personal experience, it takes a very different skill set to run a beginning level class compared to an intermediate or an advanced class. They require different planning styles.” Likewise, when commenting on her perception that beginner-level instructors suffer from typecasting, Lori specifically cited differences in instructional style:

You almost can get typecast here if you start teaching beginners. Then they say, “Oh, yeah! You’re a beginner level teacher; oh, I could never teach beginners!” And you think, well, it’s just like me saying I could never teach advanced level students. You’re reading these long, multi-page papers and I’m trying to figure out how to break this down into tiny, little manageable parts. We’re just dealing with our work in different ways. We both have challenges.

In her observation of the differences between proficiency levels, Lori drew a contrast between the large amount of production that students are capable of at higher proficiency levels with the need to present concepts to beginner-level students in “tiny, little manageable parts.” It is argued that Arthur’s and Lori’s observations concerning the differences in appropriate instructional design between proficiency levels might reflect an implicit understanding of the implications of John Sweller’s (1998, 2015) cognitive load theory, which draws upon a cognitivist understanding of learning to suggest appropriate instructional design. Sweller (2015) summarized cognitive load theory:

Academic learning requires explicit instruction that facilitates the acquisition of domain-specific, biologically secondary information. That information initially is processed by a severely limited working memory before being permanently stored in long-term memory. Once appropriate information is stored, the limitations of working memory disappear, performance improves, and the purpose of instruction has been fulfilled. (p. 193)

For Sweller (2015), cognitive load is of importance to instruction when attempting to teach complex information (*i.e.*, academic learning) that requires students to process many different concepts in working memory (WM) at once. Sweller (2015) provided the example of learning to solve an algebra problem as a task with a heavy cognitive load, as many concepts need to be simultaneously applied in an individual's WM while learning to solve the problem. On the other hand, learning vocabulary in a second language was described by Sweller (2015) as having less of a cognitive load because each lexical item can be learned independently and of itself.

Cummins (2001) noted that academic language proficiency requires engagement with spoken language and written texts that impose upon the student a high cognitive demand in a context where paralinguistic information is reduced. While vocabulary acquisition, a discrete language skill (Cummins, 2001), may be a less cognitively-demanding task than solving an algebra problem (Sweller, 2015), reading comprehension, described by Cummins (2001) as an element of academic language proficiency, requires one to process many different linguistic elements at once (*e.g.*, phonemic awareness, morphosyntactic knowledge, semantic and pragmatic awareness, content-area knowledge, etc.). Following Sweller's (1998, 2015) theory, it can be imagined that for beginning-level students, comprehension of an academic text would be a task with a heavy cognitive load. Because beginner-level students do not have the store of information intermediate- and advanced-level students have concerning conversational fluency

and discrete language skills in English (Council of Europe, 2001; Cummins, 2001), they are often limited by the constraints of their WM when engaging with academic language in the classroom (O'Grady, 2005; Sweller, 1998, 2015).

Citing Vygotsky's concept of scaffolding, Cummins (2001) argued that English language instruction should facilitate the progression of learners from mastery of context-embedded, cognitively undemanding tasks to context-reduced, cognitively demanding tasks as part of a program of study in which appropriate internal and external contextual support is built into the instruction. It is possible that the instructional design identified by the faculty participants reflect an attempt to guide beginner-level students through the continuum described by Cummins (2001) through a methodology that seeks to reduce the demands placed on individual students' WM. Alan Baddeley and Graham Hitch (as cited in Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013) proposed that WM stores phonological information and visuo-spatial information in separate components; it is possible that the perception expressed by the faculty participants that differentiating instruction by modality several times during a lesson is an appropriate technique to meet the language learning needs of beginning-level students developed from the possible effect this technique might have in reducing the cognitive load beginner-level students experience when processing academic language. An example of this is Arthur's opinion that the ELDI classrooms need more visual aids; referencing his time as an instructor at another institution, Arthur related an anecdote that highlighted his perception of the importance of visual aids:

A language classroom should have something of visual interest. Something that I did with a co-teacher years ago, we were the only two instructors to use this room, [was to make] a deal with him. I said, "I would like to put some grammar charts; some verbs' conjugations [and] tenses up on the wall for our students." I taught in the morning [and]

he taught in the afternoon. [I told him] “Feel free to take them down if they’re getting tested on some of the information that’s contained in one of the charts, but when it’s done, put it back up so they have that visual reference.”

Arthur expanded on his reasoning for why he believes language classrooms need visual aids and manipulatives,

I think that’s really important for the students to have; something they can latch on to, whether it’s physical, something they have in their hands, something that is just up on the wall that’s more permanent than a PowerPoint, or something they can manipulate. If that’s available to them on a regular basis to just sort of help. You know, we’ve all had those moments where we’re taking a test and we look at a question and we think, “Oh, man! I know that we studied it; I just can’t remember how to do this!” The ability for a student, without cheating, to look at something and have that “Oh! We were talking about this, and it’s up on the wall; now I remember,” I think is beneficial. I mean, as native speakers, we can’t remember everything all the time in our own language. So how fair is it to expect that once a student has demonstrated proficiency, that when they come across it in six weeks, they’re going to still remember it?

Arthur’s advocacy for visual aids in the language classroom might be a recognition of the fact that if information is available to the students visually when needed, the cognitive load (Sweller, 1998, 2015) experienced by the students might be reduced. Indeed, Arthur’s citation of the common phenomenon of forgetting a concept while taking a test seems to be an implicit recognition of Sweller’s (1998, 2015) arguments concerning the role WM plays in transference of domain-specific information into long-term memory. It can be argued that further evidence for this can be found in Arthur’s observation that an item on a test “[c]ould be one of those things

that you don't come across very often, so how fair is it that [the students] have to know it every single time?" Arthur stated, "I think that a language classroom should provide some support for that – to keep that connection or to kick start the memory." Arthur's sentiments concerning the need for visual aids, such as informational charts or posters, in the classroom environment were shared by other faculty participants, who identified a lack in the learning situation as the fact that their environs are "sterile" (Carmen), or "stark" (Lori).

As noted earlier, it is argued that evidence that the beginner-level students experience a heavy cognitive load can be found in the expressed desire on the part of the student participants for improvement in speaking and listening (Findings 9 and 10) as well as for a learning style that incorporates peer interaction (Findings 5 and 13). Ohta (2001) argued that for beginner-level students, second language production requires the simultaneous processing of a host of phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical information, which beginner-level students may lack the WM capacity to effectively process. Peer assistance (Foster & Ohta, 2005) provides an interlocutor who is free to analyze the language produced and to predict what might follow; as such, the listener has the cognitive resources to collaborate with the speaker and provide peer scaffolding, even with language elements that the listener hasn't fully appropriated (Ohta, 2001). It is posited that the student participants seek to improve both their speaking and listening so that they might engage in languaging (Swain, 1985) with peers more effectively in the classroom.

In short, it is argued that the faculty participants' perception of appropriate instructional design for beginner-level students, as detailed in Finding 17, is a reflection of the faculty participants' experiences in accounting for the heavy cognitive load (Sweller, 1998, 2015) placed upon their beginner-level students when engaging in academic language learning tasks in the classroom. The data from which Finding 17 was developed suggest that the faculty participants

attempt to lessen the cognitive load experienced by their beginner-level students through scaffolded instructional design which differentiates instruction by modality and is cognizant that the limitations WM places on student cognition does not allow them to successfully engage academic language learning tasks in the classroom for an extended period of time. Furthermore, the lack of visual aids in the classroom, expressed most clearly by Arthur, is seen by many of the faculty participants as something that should be addressed as it is perceived such aids provide appropriate scaffolding for beginner-level students. It is argued that evidence that the students experience cognitive load when engaged in academic language tasks in the classroom can be found in Findings 5, 9, 10, and 13, which suggest that the students use collaborative dialog as a languaging technique (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Ohta, 2001; Swain, 1985) to compensate for the limitations of their WM.

Teacher Dispositions

Another area of specialization identified by the faculty participants was in teacher dispositions (Dewey, 1916/1944; Diez & Murrell, 2010) toward beginner-level instruction; as detailed in Finding 25, all of the faculty participants with the exception of Lori indicated that they believe certain dispositions were necessary to be held by instructors in order to successfully accommodate beginner-level students' language learning needs. Mary E. Diez and Peter C. Murrell Jr. (2010) defined dispositions as "habits of professional action or moral commitments that spur such actions" (p. 9); Diez and Murrell (2010) added that "dispositions refer to a teaching stance, a way of orienting oneself to the work and responsibilities of teachers. Those responsibilities are ultimately about moral practice, in which the teacher mobilizes her knowledge and skills in behalf of the learners entrusted to her care" (p. 9). John Dewey (1916/1944) argued that dispositions developed from individuals' interaction with their

environment. With these definitions (Dewey, 1916/1944; Diez & Murrell, 2010) in mind, it is argued that the primary disposition identified by the faculty participants as necessary for beginner-level instruction, patience, might be a reflection of an understanding on the part of the faculty participants of the high cognitive load (Sweller, 1998, 2015) experienced by their beginner-level students when processing complex academic language in their classes, as observed by the instructors from their prior experience in teaching beginner-level students. Robert J. Stahl (1994) contrasted the concept of *wait-time*, the amount of silence between a teacher-initiated question and student response with *think-time*, a deliberate pause in teacher-student interlocution to allow for cognitive processing. Considering the many elements beginner-level students need to simultaneously process in their WM (O’Grady, 2005; Sweller, 2015), it follows that a longer amount of *think-time* (Stahl, 1994) would be necessary during such classroom tasks than for intermediate- or advanced-level students. Indeed, a professional habit of patience within the classroom would seem to support such instructional practices. Stahl (1994) argued that an instructor should “deliberately and consistently” (p. 5) allow a minimum of 3 to 5 seconds to elapse after initiating a question so that students have sufficient time to process the necessary information and formulate a response. Similarly, Nourollah Zarrinabadi (2014) found that in the context of Iranian university students learning English, variables concerning teacher behavior, including wait-time allowed, influenced learner’s willingness to communicate in the classroom; specifically Zarrinabadi (2014) found that “some students considered teacher’s extended wait-time, which they called patience, as the reason for being active and communicative” (p. 292). Likewise, research by Barley Shuk-yin Chan Mak (2003, 2011) and Steve Walsh and Li Li (2013) have found similar results concerning the importance of wait-time/think-time (Stahl, 1994) in improving the quantity and quality of student-talk in the context

of English classes in China. Interestingly, Mak (2011) appealed for increased wait-time in the language classroom from cultural reasons, arguing that “Chinese students are clear that they usually require longer wait-time to speak up and respond than their European counterparts because ‘group unity’ and face’ are important elements of their culture” (p. 211).

Similarly, it is possible that the dispositions of being caring, encouraging, and observant cited by the faculty participants as necessary for beginner-level instruction might be reflective of an awareness of the unique affective needs of international students at this proficiency level. Arnold and Brown (1999) argued that “[l]anguage learning and use is a transactional process. Transaction is the act of reaching out beyond the self to others” (p. 18); thus, Arnold and Brown (1999) identified empathy as an affective factor involved in SLL. While Arnold and Brown (1999) claimed that it is yet unknown to just what degree empathy and successful SLL are correlated, Mak (2003) found that teacher behavior “such as creating a warm and easy going atmosphere in the classroom, upholding teaching professionalism, providing specific help to students and providing pleasant language experience” (p. ii) were conducive to increasing student willingness to speak in the classroom. Likewise, Orlando (2011) found that positive affect towards participation in an Intensive English program was related to instances of interpersonal communication between students and instructors, as well as between students and their peers.

Furthermore, dispositions of care, encouragement, and observation on the part of the instructor might serve to alleviate not only the culture shock experienced by international students (Hanassab & Tidwell, 2002; Mori, 2000, Y. Long, 2013), but *language shock* (Arnold & Brown, 1999) as well. Arnold and Brown (1999) defined language shock as “the situation when adult learners fear that their words in the target language do not reflect their ideas adequately,

perhaps making them appear ridiculous or infantile” (pp. 21-22). An awareness of language shock on the part of the students was expressed by Arthur; as detailed in Finding 25, he made directly connected the dispositions of being encouraging and active that he perceives Carmen as possessing with her ability to deal with the language shock (Arnold & Brown, 1999) experienced by her beginning-level students.

The dispositions identified by the faculty participants might also serve to foster increased teacher-student relationship quality (Boykin & Noguera, 2011), in which a relationship has been identified with increased academic achievement and student engagement (Boykin & Noguera, 2011). As both Leki (2007) and Orlando (2011) found, relationships between students and faculty are a key factor in the development of positive affect within English language learners’ experience in postsecondary contexts. This was acknowledged by Carmen, who stated, “I try to really instill in them the necessity of communication with the teacher ... because studies have shown that those teacher-student relationships are what really make a person’s university years flourish.” Positive affect on the part of language learners has been shown to lead towards more effective second language learning (Arnold & Brown, 1999).

Summary

To summarize, it is argued that to accommodate the language learning needs of beginner-level students it is necessary to employ an instructional design that seeks to minimize the cognitive load (Sweller, 1998, 2015) placed upon beginner-level students when engaged in language learning tasks that require the simultaneous cognitive processing of several elements of complex academic language use. From their experience in teaching beginner-level students, the faculty participants in the study all pointed to content delivery that incorporates a series of varied language learning activities and tasks that target different modalities (*i.e.*, visual, auditory, and

kinesthetic) presented at a quick pace as appropriate instructional design for the beginning proficiency level. The data gleaned from the interviews with faculty participants suggest that this type of instructional design helps alleviate the burden processing complex academic language during a task places on a student's WM (Sweller, 2015). It is suggested that evidence that the students experience a heavy cognitive load can be found in the student participants' indication that they wish to develop their listening and speaking ability as well as to engage in collaborative dialog in class, which Ohta (2001) claimed was a way for beginner-level students to compensate for the limitations of their WM.

Likewise, the identification of certain dispositions as necessary for beginner-level instruction by the faculty participants is argued to have developed from the prior experience of the faculty in accommodating the unique language learning needs of beginner-level students (Dewey, 1916/1944; Diez & Murrell, 2010). The disposition of patience, which was recognized as a critical disposition by the faculty participants (Finding 25) is posited as developing from instructors' experience in delivering academic content appropriately based on the limited capacity of beginner-level students' WM (Ohta, 2001; Sweller, 2015). Similarly, the dispositions identified by the faculty participants may have developed from the need to create an atmosphere of positive affect in the classroom (Arnold & Brown, 1999) through the development of high quality teacher-student relationships (Boykin & Noguera, 2011; Leki 2007; Orlando, 2011) which help to alleviate the effect of culture shock, language shock (Arnold & Brown, 1999), and other anxiety-inducing, demotivating factors (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Hu, 2011) preventing effective second language learning.

Analytic Category 4: Cross-Cultural Sense-Making in the Classroom

It is argued that in order for beginner-level student language learning needs to be properly accommodated, student perception of needs must be accurately communicated. In a cross-cultural context, such as international students enrolled in an Intensive English program, the possibility for cross-cultural miscommunication exists (Hanassab & Tidwell, 2002; Hiller, 2012; Pon et al., 2003; Osland & Bird, 2000). For example, within the first analytic category of this study, the findings of Research Question 1 were synthesized to reveal that the student participants desire a pedagogical environment in which they can engage in languaging (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Swain, 1985) with their peers and instructors; however, with this in mind, the data gleaned from the student participants in part II of the needs analysis questionnaire (as given in Table 4.5), as well as the faculty participants' reports of their perceptions that beginner-level students do not understand communicative language teaching (Finding 20) and desire attitudinally passive learning styles (Finding 23), present a paradox. Indeed, as Table 4.5 shows, the six items that were most highly ranked by the student participants suggest a preference for an authority-oriented (Wong & Nunan, 2011) language learning style that, at first glance, wouldn't seem compatible with the active and communicative pedagogy the focus group participants expressed as necessary for language learning. While Hutchinson and Waters's (1987) framework for needs analysis distinguishes between perception of necessities and wants, it is argued that it is not enough to merely recognize that necessities and wants can differ in the target or learning situation; in order for content to be delivered effectively, the reasons behind such differences should be understood. The findings that inform Analytic Category 4 are listed in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16.

Relationship of Findings to Research Question 3 to Analytic Concepts and Grounding Theories or Studies (Analytic Category 4)

Findings	Analytic Concepts	Grounding Theories or Studies
5, 8, 13, 20, 23, 24	Cultural Sensemaking Model	Osland & Bird (2000)

Cultural Sensemaking Model

Recall that during one of the researcher's field observations, Carmen expressed her belief that teaching was primarily about earning students' trust; additionally, she indicated that beginner-level international students desire an authority-centered learning environment, and consequently, she felt that student autonomy at the beginner-level threatens that trust. (Finding 8). Likewise, during her interview, when asked what teaching methodologies or styles her beginning-level students preferred, Lori answered,

I would only [assume] that they are used to a teacher being an authority figure. They're used to not really giving a lot of feedback to the teacher about what they need, and [to] just letting the teacher make that decision. Even things like if I say, "Okay, so we just watched that two times, would you like to listen to it again?" Even making a decision about whether they want to listen to it again before we do a large group thing. Or, "Do you want to check in with each other first before we have a large group thing?" Or like some kind of self-directed stuff that I feel like I might do if I were a language learner.

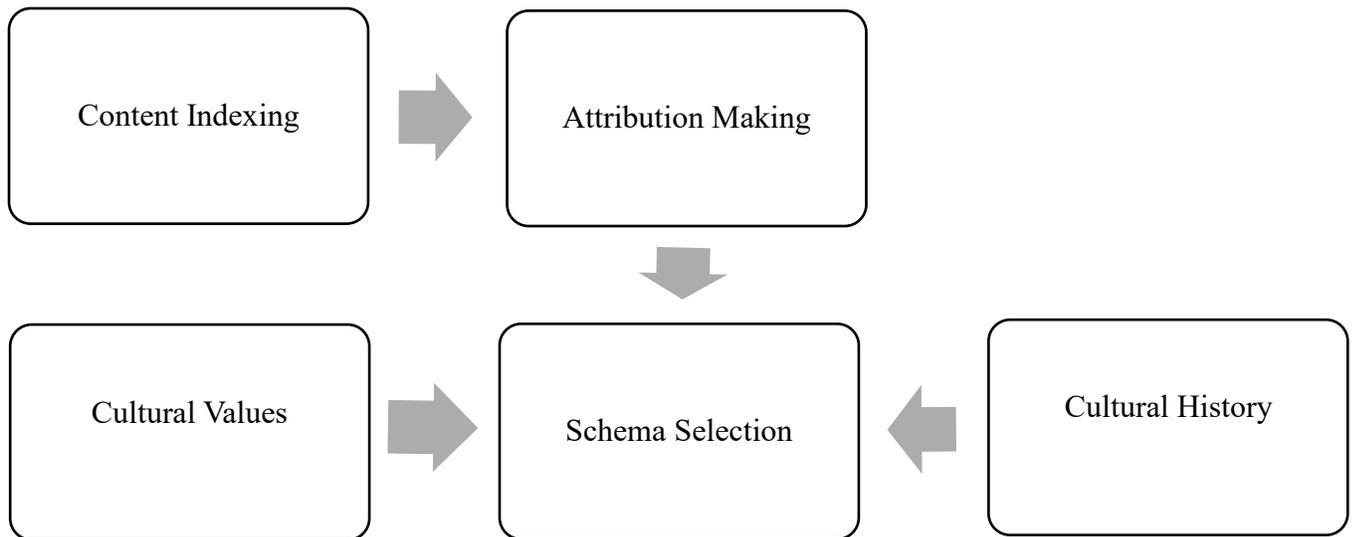
Lori also stated that the students prefer a learning style "where the teacher asks questions and the students answer." However, while Finding 23 details the faculty participants' observations of their beginning level students' classroom behavior, which they interpreted as signaling a preference for attitudinally passive language learning styles (Wong & Nunan, 2011), the student participants' responses during the focus group gave much evidence of their engaging in

attitudinally active language learning styles (Wong & Nunan, 2011), albeit outside of class. Examples of language learning strategies cited by the student focus group participants included talking to native speakers, watching television and movies in English, listening to music or news in English, recreational reading, and participating in service learning projects. According to Wong and Nunan (2011), with the exception of recreational reading, each of these language learning strategies fall under either the communicative or concrete language learning style, both of which are classified as attitudinally-active.

Acknowledging that one's conceptualization of teaching and learning can be influenced by one's cultural values and past experiences (Alhaisoni, 2012; Broomhead, 2013; Giroir, 2013; Gradman & Hanania, 1991; Hanassab & Tidwell, 2002; Mori, 2000; Nakaprasit, 2010; Vandrick, 1997; Zhang, 2007), it is argued that the difference in perception between the faculty and student participants concerning preferred language learning style is a result of a cross-cultural miscommunication concerning expected classroom behaviors and norms. One tool that may assist language educators and administrators in resolving what seems to be paradoxical behavior is the Cultural Sensemaking Model (CSM) developed by Joyce S. Osland and Allan Bird (2000), which was applied to the context of postsecondary English language development programs in a teaching case study by Kristin E. Hiller (2012). The CSM consists of three sequential steps: 1.) *indexing context*, 2.) *making attributions*, and 3.) *selecting schema*: indexing context requires the identification of contextual cues within the situation, making attributions is the process of analyzing the contextual cues so that they are matched to the appropriate schema as framed by one's own identity and experiences, and selecting schema is the adoption of behavioral scripts appropriate to the culture and context present in the situation (Osland & Bird, 2000). According to Osland and Bird (2000), schema selection is influenced by cultural values and history.

Following Hiller's (2012) example, it is argued that the CSM (Osland & Bird, 2000) can be used to make sense of the apparent paradox within this study between the student participants' expressed preference for attitudinally active language learning styles (Wong & Nunan, 2011) and the faculty participants' perception of beginner-level students as preferring attitudinally passive styles (Wong & Nunan, 2011) as based on their observations of classroom behavior. The CSM is depicted graphically in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1. Cultural Sensemaking Model (adapted from Osland & Bird, 2000)



In employing the CSM (Osland & Bird, 2000) to analyze the case of ELDI, one might analyze the situation in the following way:

- **Context Indexing:** Beginner-level international students enrolled in an Intensive English program taught by native English speaking teachers.

- **Attribution Making:** The vast majority of students enrolled in ELDI's beginner-level courses desire to earn degree at an American university (Finding 24); to gain admission into an American university, the students require prerequisite score on standardized language proficiency test in order to enter the university; and that the faculty believe students need more development in social English before they are ready to study the academic English necessary for success on a standardized language proficiency test (Findings 14 & 18).
- **Cultural Values:** Most home cultures represented among the students conceptualize teaching and learning through a collectivist, authority-oriented lens which expresses itself in the cultural expectation for attitudinally-passive classroom behavior (Giroir, 2013; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Y. Long, 2013; Rigas, 2009; Vandrick, 1997; Vann & Abraham, 1990; Wong & Nunan, 2011; Zhang, 2007). As Finding 18 suggests, the ELDI has a methodological orientation to communicative language teaching, which conceptualizes interpersonal communicative interaction as the method and goal of language instruction (Alexander, 2012; Richards, 2001).
- **Cultural History:** In many of the students' home educational systems, great importance is given to high-stakes testing in determining an individual's academic career (Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, 2006; Zhang, 2007). According to the faculty participants, the ELDI did not have such a large population of beginner-level international students seeking admission into university until recently (Finding 24).
- **Schema Selection:** An advocate for the students could explain to the faculty why instructors should provide both communicative and academic-focused English instruction in their beginner-level courses. Additionally, as per the recommendations of Nakaprasit

(2010), the program could make the students more explicitly aware of the differences in cultural expectations of teaching and learning between their home cultures and American culture as a part of instruction as well as during a cultural orientation workshop before instruction begins.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stressed that needs analysis should incorporate the perceptions of both the instructor or course designer and the learner; however, in a cross-cultural context there is the risk that learner perception data might be misinterpreted from the fact that the data will be examined within the framework of the instructor's or course designer's own cultural values and norms. Taking the recommendations of Hiller (2012) into account, it is argued that the Cultural Sensemaking Model of Osland and Bird (2000) is an appropriate analytic tool in this context that can help language program instructors, administrators, and course designers identify the root causes of seemingly paradoxical behavior on the part of international students and guide decision making.

Analytic Category 5: The Islanders

Analytic Category 5 addresses the *a priori* theoretical proposition (Yin, 2014) held by the researcher that the institutional marginalization of Intensive English programs on American campuses of higher education (Case, 1998; Dantas-Whitney & Dimmitt, 2002; Staczek & Carkin, 1985; Stanley, 1994; Vandrick, Hafernik, & Messerschmitt, 1994) might influence the willingness of program faculty to fully accommodate the needs of students enrolled in their program's beginner-level courses. While Finding 29 did detail the experiences of institutional marginalization reported by the faculty participants, the researcher could find no evidence that the participants' experiences influenced their willingness to accommodate beginner-level students' language learning needs in any way. Rather, it was found that the physical and

organizational isolation experienced by faculty participants seemed to give them the freedom to accommodate beginner-level needs without fear of the judgement from mainstream faculty. In the study, the physical and organizational isolation described by the ELDI faculty participants is analyzed through the metaphor of ELDI as an island; the metaphor of ELDI as an island was employed by Arthur during his face-to-face interview; when asked if he identified more as an ELDI administrator or an MU administrator, Arthur replied,

That's a really, really hard question to answer. I guess the reason that it's hard to answer is that because of the way [ELDI] had been run, it was kind of its little island off the coast of [MU]. It was connected. You know, there were a couple ferries running every once in a while, but by and large it was not quite connected.

Arthur's use of the imagery of an island to describe ELDI perfectly encapsulates the themes of exclusion and isolation that were reported by the faculty participants when describing their relationship with the hosting institution. Using Case's (1998) previous application of reference group theory (Merton, 1968) to the Intensive English program context as a theoretical lens, it is argued that, with the exception of Arthur, the faculty participants experience so great a level of exclusion from the MU faculty that they feel little to no tension between identification with ELDI and with MU; that is, as *islanders*, they very rarely interact with the *mainlanders* of the larger community of MU faculty. Consequently, it is argued that due to the rarity of interaction between the two groups, the ELDI islanders mostly haven't aspired to gain membership in the group of mainstream MU faculty mainlanders because the physical and social exclusion of the program within the institution cause the ELDI faculty to perceive there is no potential for *mobility* (Dawson & Chatman, 2001) between the two groups; therefore, the values and norms of the mainlanders have little to no *referent power* (Dawson & Chatman, 2001) in influencing the

behavior of the ELDI faculty who participated in the study. An example of this can be found in Lori's statements; when asked if she ever felt any tension between identification with ELDI or with the larger community of MU, Lori stated, "Not necessarily because we always surround ourselves with [ELDI] people. If I had opportunity to interact with [MU] faculty, I think there might be a chance for me to see how that felt, but we don't." With reference group theory (Case, 1998; Dawson & Chatman, 2001; Merton, 1968) in mind, one could interpret Lori's statement as providing evidence to support that the lack of referent power (Dawson & Chatman, 2001) exerted on Lori by the mainlanders is a result of the fact that she has no interaction with them, and thus no perception of the possibility of mobility. Likewise, a statement by Anna can be seen as supporting the view that the ELDI faculty, in general, do not see the possibility of mobility between the two reference groups of the island and the mainland; commenting on the consequences of ELDI's physical and organizational isolation, Anna stated,

I view my position as a full time faculty member as a little different. I'm considered a senior lecturer. That's the name of my position here. Our full time faculty are non-tenured faculty and that's the only choice right now. So I think that, we're in a different position.

Anna's observation that the full-time ELDI faculty are not offered tenure by their hosting institution highlights a difference between the two groups; furthermore, it is posited that Anna seems to provide this observation as evidence that the lack of mobility experienced by the islanders is a result of institutional policy.

On the other hand, Carmen reported that she has had slightly more interaction with the mainland as she chose to initiate contact with individuals outside of the ELDI program; Carmen explained, "I think that ELDI is its own little entity. Besides the few people who I've gone out of

my way to meet, it's mainly ELDI faculty." Carmen's relatively greater contact with the mainland can be seen as a factor in her desire to identify with that group:

I would prefer to consider myself part of [MU] faculty, and I would really prefer to have more communication with [MU] faculty in order to make those links. And in fact, it's funny, because that's one of my goals for next year. I've met some people from different departments, and I would love to do more cross communication. As it stands right now, I think that [ELDI] is its own program, and it is very different from the matriculated students.

It can be argued that from Carmen's experience with interacting with mainstream faculty, that she has developed the perception that mobility between the two groups is possible. Reference group theory (Case, 1998; Dawson & Chatman, 2001; Merton, 1968) would predict that as Carmen interacts more with the mainlanders, the values and norms of that group will exert referent power (Dawson & Chatman, 2001) upon her behavior. While Carmen was identified by Arthur as an exemplary teacher of beginner-level students, Carmen also often teaches intermediate and advanced level courses; indeed, Carmen reported that she had only been teaching beginner-level courses in ELDI for a short time prior to her participation in the study. Reference group theory (Merton, 1968) would suggest that as Carmen continues to interact with the mainlanders, she will elect to teach higher proficiency levels more often as she might view beginner-level instruction as threatening her potential mobility into the mainland group (Case, 1999; Dawson & Chatman, 2001). However, it is also possible that the professional dispositions (Dewey, 1916/1944; Diez & Murrell, 2010) Carmen was identified as possessing by Arthur have inculcated within her the continued desire to teach beginner-level students and help them meet their language learning needs.

The researcher believes that further support for the idea that frequency of contact with the mainland has an influence on how much an islander identifies with the larger reference group of mainstream MU faculty and administrators can be found in Arthur's statements, as detailed in Finding 29, which suggest that he identifies, in some way, with both reference groups.

Reference group theory (Case, 1998; Dawson & Chatman, 2001; Merton, 1968) would suggest that it is not surprising that Arthur, as associate director of the program, would feel a greater connection to the mainland than the instructors, due to the fact that part of his job is maintain frequent contact with offices and departments located within the larger campus. Furthermore, in line with the findings of Case (1998), Arthur reported feeling some tension between his role as an ELDI administrator and an MU administrator. After commenting that some of the duties he performs as part of his job are clearly part of his islander role and that some are clearly part of his mainland role, Arthur observed that "ultimately, these things that I'm doing as an [MU] administrator I think are, for the most part, for the benefit of [ELDI]. But not everything is for the benefit [of ELDI]; some of it is because of some higher-up's requirement."

Case (1998) argued that Intensive English program administrators, as a result of their liminal positions between the two reference groups, have the opportunity to create the conditions in which their programs can be more fully integrated within their hosting institutions to allow for increased mobility. According to Case (1998), Intensive English program administrators can "empower faculty members to move in between the host and the program" (p. 19) by increasing awareness of their programs' contribution to their hosting institutions' mission and success. Evidence that, despite their current institutional marginalization, the awareness of ELDI is rising within MU can be found within the statements by several faculty participants who reported that recently ELDI has sent more *ferries*, to use Arthur's terminology, to the mainland. For example,

Carmen's work in making connections between ELDI and MU's writing center can be seen as a ferry. Likewise, Lori's efforts to raise the level of awareness on campus concerning the ELDI is another example of a ferry:

We are trying to do more integration. I think we're getting better at it, but we're just – being non-credit and being an institute that's not known anywhere around – if you say [ELDI] they don't know what it is. So, yeah, I always say [ELDI], and then I say it's the [Miskatonic] University English Language Program.

Anna also spoke on how she felt the mission of ELDI contributes to the institutional needs of MU:

For example, for our higher-level students, what do they need to know when they enter [MU]? What do their professors expect? How can we prepare them for that? We want to create more programs where there's a real connection between our classes and [MU] classes. So, I think that things are changing for us in a positive way.

However, it remains to be seen if greater contact between the islanders and mainlanders, and the consequent increased possibility for mobility between the two groups (Case, 1998) will lead to *anticipatory socialization* (Case, 1998; Dawson & Chatman, 2001) on the part of the islanders, in which the values and norms of the mainland are adopted by the islanders. If this occurs, it may lead to conditions in which the theoretical proposition of the study that the perception of lack of academic rigor in postsecondary ESL instruction held by some mainstream faculty might influence the willingness of Intensive English program instructors and administrators who aspire to gain membership in the reference group of mainstream faculty to fully accommodate language learning needs of beginner-level international students might prove to be true. Yet, as it stands now, it is argued that the perception, as expressed by Arthur, that the accommodation of

beginner-level international students' language learning needs by ELDI is no different than the social and academic acculturation programs MU provides for its first-year domestic students proves the theoretical proposition false for this case.

Summary

This chapter presented the findings of a case study of the perceptions of language learning needs of beginner-level students held by faculty and student participants in one university-affiliated Intensive English program located in northern New England. From the analysis of the findings, five analytic themes emerged: evidence for beginner-level students' desire to employ languaging in the classroom, the influence of communicative language teaching on faculty participants' teaching beliefs concerning beginning-level students in English for Academic Purposes courses, the perception of beginning-level instruction as requiring specialized knowledge, skills, and dispositions, the need for cross-cultural sense making when perceptions of needs differ, and the institutional marginalization experienced by the faculty participants. The researcher endeavored to construct an analysis of the findings that synthesized the case as a whole, yet highlighted its nuanced and multifaceted nature. The analysis attempted to interpret a large amount of data that was collected from multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2014), condense the data so that significant patterns and themes could be identified (Creswell, 2013; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014; Yin, 2014), and then report how the data answer the inquiry of the study.

With this in mind, the researcher believes it necessary to warrant an amount of caution concerning the analysis and interpretation of the findings. First, the study examined a single case; while much insight can be gained from a revelatory case (Yin, 2014) like the one studied, it is acknowledged that the analytic generalizations (Yin, 2014) that can be drawn from it are

limited. Second, the research sample was small, comprising of focus group data gleaned from 11 student participants and face-to-face interview data from only 5 faculty participants. Third, although the 11 students who participated in the focus group represented 55 % (11 out of 20) of the total beginner-level student population in the program, it is probable that the students who chose to participate in the focus group were not only more extroverted (Coles & Swami, 2012), but also more willing to communicate (Yashima, 2002) in English. Thus, the perceptions of those students who were more introverted or less willing to communicate in English are not represented in the focus group data. Although the findings were generally supportive of the findings of a similar study on international students' language learning needs in a Canadian Intensive English program conducted by Nakaprasit (2010), it is stressed that the implications drawn from this study are specific to the case studied. Finally, inherent in all qualitative research is the potential bias stemming from the researcher as the primary data collection instrument; however, the researcher acknowledges that possible additional bias may exist in the analysis of the findings as he had previously been an instructor in a university-affiliated Intensive English program for eight years, and is now the interim director of the same Intensive English program. As a strategy to manage the effect of this bias, throughout the process of data collection and analysis, the researcher kept a research journal in which he engaged in critical reflection through analytic memoing (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). Also, he remained in close contact with his dissertation committee during his fieldwork and data analysis, where he engaged in critical discussion with the members of his committee concerning his interpretation of the findings. Additionally, the findings and interpretation were sent to key participants in the study as part of a strategy of member checking (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014), so that the participants could verify that the findings accurately and fairly described their perceptions. The researcher

acknowledges that other interpretations of the data are possible, and as such, this chapter presents how one researcher comprehends the meaning of the findings and the greater implications that can be drawn from them.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

The purpose of this single case study was to explore within the context of one university-affiliated Intensive English program located within the northern New England region of the United States of America the perceptions held by both international students and program faculty of the language learning needs of beginner-level students. The conclusions from this study follow the analytic themes used to answer the research questions that guided the inquiry of the study, and therefore address five areas: (a) beginner-level students' need for academic and social language; (b) communicative language teaching's influence on beginner-level instruction; (c) beginning-level instruction as a specialization; (d) the need for cross-cultural sense making when perceptions of needs differ; and (e) the institutional marginalization experienced by the faculty participants. After a discussion of the major analytic themes and conclusions drawn from this research, the researcher presents his recommendations and a final reflection on the study.

Beginner-Level Students' Need for Academic and Social Language

The first analytic theme that emerged from the findings to the first research question of the study is that the majority of student participants expressed a desire to improve their speaking ability, as well to increase their knowledge of academic vocabulary and grammatical structures, as they believe their primary linguistic task in the target situation is participation in class discussion. Furthermore, there is evidence that the perception exists among the student participants that they develop their academic language skill through communicative interaction with teachers and peers. A conclusion to be drawn from the findings from which this analytic theme emerged is that international students who enroll in Intensive English programs enter their programs with firmly-held perceptions of their target and learning needs. Despite being enrolled

in beginner-level proficiency classes; they expect to engage in academic language tasks in the classroom. Stemming from their identity as students in higher education, beginner-level international students desire to be able to express themselves in class concerning their academic interests; in order to do so, they require not only communicative language skill, but the vocabulary and grammatical structures specific to their discipline. Nevertheless, the student participants also expressed a desire for instruction in social English as a consequence of their need to navigate daily life on a large urban campus. It is concluded that the student participants perceive the need to develop their proficiency in both the social and academic registers of English.

The Influence of Communicative Language Teaching on Beginner-Level Instruction

The second analytic theme that emerged from the findings to the second research question of the study is that all of the faculty participants believed that beginner-level Intensive English program students need a foundation in the social register of English before meaningful instruction in academic English is possible. A conclusion that can be drawn from this theme is that the assumptions embedded within the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach (Alexander, 2012; Richards, 2001) strongly influence the teaching beliefs of the faculty participants. Thus, the curriculum for beginner-level students developed by the program studied is solely focused on establishing that foundation in social English. These teaching beliefs also influence the faculty participants' conception of their students' capabilities. Additionally, a second conclusion can be drawn that the strong orientation within CLT to directing language instruction toward what students perceive they need (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) provides the framework for successful negotiation of identity (Cummins, 2001) within the classroom by beginner-level students, reported by the faculty participants, where increased engagement with

academic language was provided. Despite prior criticisms of the appropriateness of CLT in an English for Special Purposes (ESP) context (Alexander, 2012; Swan, 1985a, 1985b), perhaps thought should be given to which aspects of CLT are conducive to appropriate ESP instruction and which are not.

Beginning-Level Instruction as a Specialization

The third analytic theme that emerged from the findings to the third research question of this study is that successful beginning-level instruction requires instructional design that reduces cognitive load. Certain dispositions, in particular patience, on the part of the teacher were also identified as necessary for successful instruction at this proficiency level. A conclusion that can be drawn from this theme is that beginning-level instruction is quintessentially different from the instruction appropriate for higher proficiency levels. Instructors assigned to teach Intensive English courses aimed at a beginner level of proficiency need to understand how instruction at this proficiency level differs from other levels, and that they need to be willing to adopt the professional habits conducive toward meeting the language learning needs to achieve success at this level.

The Need for Cross-Cultural Sense Making

The fourth analytic theme that emerged from the findings to the third research question of this study is that accommodation of beginner-level language learning needs requires instructors and course designers to make sense of seemingly paradoxical classroom behavior or expressions of need in a cross-cultural setting. A conclusion that can be drawn from this theme is that cross-cultural needs analysis data should not be interpreted solely from the cultural frame of the course facilitators. In a cross-cultural setting, like international students enrolled in an Intensive English program abroad, a needs analysis in which data are interpreted only from the cultural perspective

of the instructors has the potential for systematic cultural bias, which, if incorporated into the design and facilitation of the program, can lead to a mismatch in perception of language learning needs between the students and course facilitators. Such mismatch has been shown to impede student progress in Intensive English programs, with a consequent increase in the likelihood of negative affect towards the program by the student (Beetham, 1997; Broomhead, 2013; Friedenber, 2002, 2009; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Nakaprasit, 2010; Wilhelm, 1995).

Institutional Marginalization

The fifth analytic theme that emerged from the findings to the fourth research question of this study is that despite the shared perception of institutional marginalization among the faculty participants, there is no evidence that this perception influences their willingness to accommodate the language learning needs of the beginning-level students enrolled in their program. The primary conclusion that can be drawn from this theme is that the extreme physical and social exclusion from their hosting institution reported by most of the faculty participants had the effect of freeing them from any social influence by mainstream faculty that would inhibit the full accommodation of beginner-level language learning needs. While, in this case, the perception of institutional marginalization had the positive effect of allowing the faculty participants to meet the needs of their beginner-level students without concern for the perception of their courses' academic rigor by the wider campus, it came with the price of a concern for job security and status that impacted the faculty participants' identification with their hosting institution.

Recommendations

The researcher offers recommendations based on the findings, analysis, and conclusions of the study. The following recommendations are for (a) Intensive English program administrators and faculty, and (b) further research.

Recommendations for Intensive English Program Administrators and Faculty

Considering that language learning needs are contextual, and acknowledging that the context varies across programs, the recommendations offered here for Intensive English program administrators and faculty should be taken as per their appropriateness on an individual basis.

Administrators and faculty of university-affiliated Intensive English programs should

1. Conduct needs analyses on a regular basis to ensure that the design and implementation of their beginner-level curriculum is appropriately meeting the language learning needs of the students enrolled in these courses.
2. Review the development and implementation of professional development programs designed to increase the number of faculty who possess the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to teach beginner-level courses.
3. Build connections between their Intensive English program and other departments and programs within their hosting institution by identifying common areas of concern and opportunities for collaboration. Additionally, administrators and faculty should campaign for increased awareness within the hosting institution as to how their program contributes to the institution's mission.
4. Discuss with their hosting institutions concerning the possibility of allowing their Intensive English students to enroll in credit-bearing courses. Michael Janopoulous (1989) described how Southeast Missouri State University allowing its Intensive

English students to enroll in one first-year level credit-bearing course per semester provided the students not only with insight into the rigor such coursework demands, but provided them a sense of academic progress as well. Furthermore, it provided the Intensive English program administrators and faculty with empirical data concerning student readiness to exit the Intensive English program (Janopoulous, 1989).

Recommendations for Further Research

The researcher recommends that further studies be conducted to develop a larger database of information from which to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the language learning needs of international students enrolled in beginner-level courses in university-affiliated Intensive English programs.

Therefore, the following should be considered:

1. Based on the limitations of the current study and to correct for researcher bias, a survey of a large sample of international students enrolled in beginner-level courses in Intensive English programs should be conducted using a needs analysis instrument to assess the extent to which the same or similar findings would be discovered.
2. Taking into account Robert K. Yin's (2014) concept of analytic generalization, further case study research into this topic should consider a multiple-case design in which cross-case analysis can be performed between various contexts (*e.g.*, public vs. private institutions, large vs. small institutions, varied regional contexts, varied student population, etc.).
3. Pranee Liamputtong (2011) strongly recommended that fieldwork in cross-cultural research be conducted by investigators who are fully bilingual/bicultural in the context to be studied. Further qualitative research into this topic should take into

- account the limited ability beginning-level students have in expressing their thoughts in English and employ fieldworkers who can communicate in the students' home languages and assist in data analysis.
4. The theoretical framework of this study adopted a sociocultural, or neo-Vygotskyian, (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013) understanding of the nature of language, language learners, and how language is learned. Considering that how one learns a second language is still an open question (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013), an understanding of beginner-level international students' language learning needs would benefit from research conducted within other theoretical traditions.

Researcher Reflection

This study developed from the concerns of the researcher developed during his time as an instructor in a university-affiliated Intensive English program, of which, he too, was identified as a beginner-level specialist. Many of the themes that emerged from the inquiry of the study were familiar to the researcher and his own experiences in the context. The common experience of institutional marginalization that seems to be ubiquitous for postsecondary English language development programs couldn't help but instill a certain *esprit de corps* within the researcher and the fellow Intensive English program instructors and students who graciously agreed to participate in the study. As a result, at every point in this study's design, thought was given to how the voices of the participants could be expressed honestly and accurately so that the perceptions of a marginalized population of students, as well as of a marginalized population of faculty and administrators could be reported. Additionally, from what he has learned from the data collected from the student participants, the orientation of the researcher toward the sociocultural tradition of second language learning theory has been further solidified. Indeed, to

hear the student participants describe, in their own words, their understanding of how they best learn English, and to see such understandings line up so well with sociocultural theory was thrilling. Despite the limitations of the researcher and the study, it is hoped that the study will contribute, in some small way, improving the instruction in beginner-level Intensive English courses, for the benefit of the students and instructors.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent Letter (Student Questionnaire - English)

Part I: Information Sheet

Name of Principal Investigator: Mr. Llej Samuel Schwartz

Title of Study: The Language Learning Needs of Beginner-Level International Students Enrolled in Intensive English Programs Affiliated with American Institutions of Higher Education: A Case Study

Recipients: International students enrolled in beginner-level courses in an Intensive English program.

Introduction

I am Mr. Llej Samuel Schwartz, a doctoral candidate conducting my dissertation research under the supervision of Dr. Marilyn Fenton of Southern New Hampshire University. I am conducting research to identify the perceptions beginner-level international students hold concerning their academic English learning needs. I am going to give you information about my study and invite you to be a participant in this research. You do not have to decide today whether or not you will participate in the research. Before you decide, you may speak with anyone you feel comfortable about the research. This consent form may contain words that you do not understand. Please ask me to stop as we go through the information and I will take the time to clarify. If you have questions at any time during the research, you may ask them of me.

Purpose of the Research

In recent years, the number of international students coming to American universities to study with only a beginner-level proficiency in English has increased. I want to understand what you, as a beginner-level student in academic English, think your language learning needs are.

Type of Research Intervention

This research will involve your cooperation in filling out a questionnaire that will ask you questions about why you want to study English, how you like to study English, and what you like and don't like about your courses

Participant Selection

You are being asked to be a participant in this research because as an international student enrolled in beginner-level courses offered by your institution's Intensive English program your perspective has the potential to contribute to the understanding of the specific language learning needs of beginner-level students in these programs.

Voluntary Participation

You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. If you choose to participate in this study, you have the ability to withdraw at any time without consequence of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you wish not to answer and still remain as a participant in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

Procedures

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire that will be provided and collected by myself. If you do not wish to answer any of the questions included in the questionnaire, you may skip these questions. The questionnaire shall be distributed after one of your classes and then collected after an hour's time. The information recorded is confidential; your name shall not be included on the form and only a number will be used to identify you. No one else other than myself and my dissertation chair will have access to your questionnaire. Depending on your answers to the questionnaire, you

may be invited to participate in a discussion with 7 to 10 other students who have also completed the questionnaire; if you agree to participate in this group discussion, you will be asked to affirm your consent to participate again.

Duration

This research is expected to take place over 4 to 6 weeks in total. During that time, the questionnaire shall be administered either before or after one of your English classes and shall take approximately 60 minutes to complete.

Risks

While it is anticipated that there is minimal to no risk to you associated with your participation in this questionnaire, please remember that you do not have to answer any question or take part in the questionnaire if you feel the questions are too personal.

Benefits

While there will be no direct benefit to you as a participant in this research, your participation is likely to help researchers in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, as well as Intensive English program administrators, better understand the language learning needs of international students in the United States. These results can be used to improve the English courses international students need to take as part of their university study, so that they might learn English for academic purposes more effectively.

Compensation

You will not be provided any incentive to take part in this research.

Confidentiality

Any information that is collected from your participation in this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential, which means that I will not share any personal

information about you to anyone outside of my dissertation committee. The information I collect for this study will be kept private; any information about you will be linked to a number and not to your name. Only my dissertation committee and I will have access to the list that links your name to your number, and that list will be stored as a digital file in a password-protected computer. Any personal information will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law.

Sharing the Results

Within the study, all participants and study locations shall be referred to with pseudonyms, or false names. Before publishing the results, I will provide you with a summary of the results and ask for your insight and confirmation. After the results have been presented to the participants and a consensus has been established between the researcher and the participant of the study that the findings accurately represent the contributions of the participants, the results shall be published as part of the my dissertation, so that other interested people might understand the language learning needs of beginner-level international students in Intensive English programs.

Rights to Refuse or Withdraw

Again, you do not have to participate in this study if you do not wish to do so, and you may choose to leave the study at any time. Your choice of participation shall not affect the grades you shall receive in your Intensive English program, your continued enrollment in the program, or your visa status.

Who to Contact

If you have any questions, you may ask them of me now, or you may contact me at:

Asst. Prof. Llej Schwartz

120 Belknap Hall
Institute for Language Education
Southern New Hampshire University
2500 North River Road
Manchester, NH 03106
l.schwartz@snhu.edu

This proposal has been reviewed and approved by the SNHU IRB, which is a committee whose task it is to make sure that research participants are protected from harm. If you wish to find about more about the IRB, contact Thomas Beraldi at t.beraldi@snhu.edu or 603-645-9695.

Part II: Certificate of Consent

I have been invited to participate in research concerning the language learning needs of international students enrolled in beginner-level courses offered by university-affiliated Intensive English programs.

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have been asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Print Name of Participant _____

Signature of Participant _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

I have witnessed the accurate reading of the consent form to the potential participant, and the individual has had the opportunity to ask questions. I confirm that the individual has given consent freely.

Print name of witness _____

Signature of witness _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

Statement by the researcher/person taking consent

I have accurately read out the information sheet to the potential participant, and to the best of my ability made sure that the participant understands the benefits and risks of the study.

I confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the study, and all the questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability. I confirm that the individual has not been coerced into giving consent, and the consent has been given freely and voluntarily.

A copy of this ICF has been provided to the participant.

Print Name of Researcher/person taking the consent _____

Signature of Researcher /person taking the consent _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

Appendix B

Informed Consent Template (Student Focus Group – English)

Part I: Information Sheet

Name of Principal Investigator: Mr. Llej Samuel Schwartz

Title of Study: The Language Learning Needs of Beginner-Level International Students Enrolled in Intensive English Programs Affiliated with American Institutions of Higher Education: A Case Study

Recipients: International students enrolled in beginner-level courses in an Intensive English program

Introduction

I am Mr. Llej Samuel Schwartz, a doctoral candidate conducting my dissertation research under the supervision of Dr. Marilyn Fenton of Southern New Hampshire University. I am conducting research to identify the perceptions beginner-level international students hold concerning their academic English learning needs. I am going to give you information about my study and invite you to be a participant in this research. You do not have to decide today whether or not you will participate in the research. Before you decide, you may speak with anyone you feel comfortable about the research. This consent form may contain words that you do not understand. Please ask me to stop as we go through the information and I will take the time to clarify. If you have questions at any time during the research, you may ask them of me.

Purpose of the Research

In recent years, the number of international student coming to American universities to study has increased. I want to understand what you, as a beginner-level student in academic English, think your language learning needs are.

Type of Research Intervention

This research will involve your participation in a moderated group discussion of 90 minutes in length.

Participant Selection

You are being asked to be a participant in this phase of the study because you previously completed a questionnaire on your perception of language learning needs and I would like to know more about your answers.

Voluntary Participation

You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. If you choose to participate in this study, you have the ability to withdraw at any time without consequence of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you wish not to answer and still remain as a participant in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

Procedures

If you agree to participate in this phase of the study, you will be invited to participate in a discussion with 7 to 10 other students who have also completed the questionnaire. This discussion will be guided by a moderator; I will be present in the room as well. Before the discussion begins, the moderator or myself, shall make sure that you are comfortable. We can also answer any questions about the research that you might have at that time. Then we will ask you questions concerning your thoughts on what English you need to learn in order to be successful in an American university, and what you need in order to learn English in the best way you can. This discussion will take place after your classes in an empty classroom, and no one else but the people who take part in the discussion and guide it will be present during the talk.

The entire discussion will be audio-recorded. This audio will be stored in a digital file on a password-protected computer, and access to the file shall be limited to myself and my dissertation committee.

Duration

During this phase of the research shall consist of one group discussion that shall be held at a later date after a questionnaire has been administered and collected. This the group discussion will be 90 minutes in length and shall take place either before or after one of your English classes in an empty classroom.

Risks

If you are invited to participate in the group discussion, there is a very slight risk that you may share some personal or confidential information by chance, or that you may feel uncomfortable talking about some of the topics. However, I do not wish for this to happen. You do not have to answer any question or take part in the group discussion if you feel the questions are too personal or if talking about them makes you uncomfortable.

Benefits

While there will be no direct benefit to you as a participant in this research, your participation is likely to help researchers in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, as well as Intensive English program administrators, better understand the language learning needs of international students in the United States. These results can be used to improve the English courses international students need to take as part of their university study, so that they might learn English for academic purposes more effectively.

Compensation

You will not be provided any incentive to take part in this research.

Confidentiality

Any information that is collected from your participation in this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential, which means that I will not share any personal information about you to anyone outside of my dissertation committee. The information I collect for this study will be kept private; any information about you will be linked to a number and not to your name. Only my dissertation committee and I will have access to the list that links your name to your number, and that list will be stored as a digital file in a password-protected computer. Any personal information will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Furthermore, I will ask you and the other participants in the group to not talk to people outside the group about what was said in the group. However, please understand that I cannot stop or prevent participants who were in the group from sharing things that should be confidential.

Sharing the Results

Within the study, all participants and study locations shall be referred to with pseudonyms, or false names. Before publishing the results, I will provide you with a summary of the results and ask for your insight and confirmation. After the results have been presented to the participants and a consensus has been established between the researcher and the participant of the study that the findings accurately represent the contributions of the participants, the results shall be published as part of the my dissertation, so that other interested people might understand the language learning needs of beginner-level international students in Intensive English programs.

Rights to Refuse or Withdraw

Again, you do not have to participate in this study if you do not wish to do so, and you may choose to leave the study at any time. Your choice of participation shall not affect the grades you shall receive in your Intensive English program, your continued enrollment in the program, or your visa status.

Who to Contact

If you have any questions, you may ask them of me now, or you may contact me at:

Asst. Prof. Llej Schwartz

120 Belknap Hall

Institute for Language Education

Southern New Hampshire University

2500 North River Road

Manchester, NH 03106

l.schwartz@snhu.edu

This proposal has been reviewed and approved by the SNHU IRB, which is a committee whose task it is to make sure that research participants are protected from harm. If you wish to find about more about the IRB, contact Thomas Beraldi at t.beraldi@snhu.edu or 603-645-9695.

Part II: Certificate of Consent

I have been invited to participate in research concerning the language learning needs of international students enrolled in beginner-level courses offered by university-affiliated Intensive English programs.

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have been asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Print Name of Participant _____

Signature of Participant _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

I have witnessed the accurate reading of the consent form to the potential participant, and the individual has had the opportunity to ask questions. I confirm that the individual has given consent freely.

Print name of witness _____

Signature of witness _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

Statement by the researcher/person taking consent

I have accurately read out the information sheet to the potential participant, and to the best of my ability made sure that the participant understands the benefits and risks of the study.

I confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the study, and all the questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability. I confirm that the individual has not been coerced into giving consent, and the consent has been given freely and voluntarily.

A copy of this ICF has been provided to the participant.

Print Name of Researcher/person taking the consent _____

Signature of Researcher /person taking the consent _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

Appendix C

Informed Consent Template (Faculty Interviews)

Part I: Information Sheet

Name of Principal Investigator: Mr. Llej Samuel Schwartz

Title of Study: The Language Learning Needs of Beginner-Level International Students Enrolled in Intensive English Programs Affiliated with American Institutions of Higher Education: A Case Study

Recipients: Administrators or Instructors of beginner-level courses in an Intensive English program

Introduction

I am Mr. Llej Samuel Schwartz, a doctoral candidate conducting my dissertation research under the supervision of Dr. Marilyn Fenton of Southern New Hampshire University. I am conducting research to identify the perceptions instructors of beginner-level international students hold concerning their students' academic English learning needs. I am going to give you information about my study and invite you to be a participant in this research. You do not have to decide today whether or not you will participate in the research. Before you decide, you may speak with anyone you feel comfortable concerning the research.

If there is anything in this consent form that you do not understand, please ask me to stop as we go through the information and I will take the time to clarify. If you have questions at any time during the research, you may ask them of me.

Purpose of the Research

In recent years, the number of international students coming to American universities to study with only a beginner-level proficiency in English has increased. I want to understand what

you, as an instructor or administrator of beginner-level courses in an Intensive English program believe to be your students' language learning needs.

Type of Research Intervention

This research will involve your cooperation in filling out a questionnaire that will ask you questions about why you believe your students want to study English, how you believe your students like to study English, and what you believe your students like and don't like about your courses. Afterwards, you will be invited to participate in a face to face interview with me, so that you will have the opportunity to expand upon your answers to the questionnaire.

Participant Selection

You are being asked to be a participant in this research because as an administrator or instructor of international students enrolled in beginner-level courses offered by your institution's Intensive English program, your perspective has the potential to contribute to the understanding of the specific language learning needs of beginner-level students in these programs.

Voluntary Participation

You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. If you choose to participate in this study, you have the ability to withdraw at any time without consequence of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you wish not to answer and still remain as a participant in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

Procedures

If you agree, I will invite you to first complete a questionnaire concerning your perception of beginner-level student language learning needs; afterwards, I shall ask you to participate in an interview with myself. If you wish, the interview can take place in your office,

or in any other convenient place on campus. If you do not wish to answer any questions during the interview, you may say so and I will move on to the next question. No one else will be present during the interview unless you would like someone else to be there. The interviews shall be audio-recorded and no one else except myself and my dissertation committee will have access to the audio recording. The audio will be stored as a digital file that will be kept on a password-protected computer.

Duration

This phase of the research is expected to take place over 4 to 6 weeks in total. During that time, I plan on meeting with you twice; once to administer the questionnaire, and once to conduct face-to-face interviews.

Risks

While it is anticipated that there is minimal to no risk to you associated with your participation in this study, please remember that you do not have to answer any questionnaire item or interview question or take part in the study if you feel the questions are too personal.

Benefits

While there will be no direct benefit to you as a participant in this research, your participation is likely to help researchers in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, as well as Intensive English program administrators, better understand the language learning needs of international students in the United States. These results can be used to improve the English courses international students need to take as part of their university study, so that they might learn English for academic purposes more effectively.

Compensation

You will not be provided any incentive to take part in this research.

Confidentiality

Any information that is collected from your participation in this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential, which means that I will not share any personal information about you to anyone outside of my dissertation committee. The information I collect for this study will be kept private; any information about you will be linked to a number and not to your name. Only my dissertation committee and I will have access to the list that links your name to your number, and that list will be stored as a digital file in a password-protected computer. Any personal information will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law.

Sharing the Results

Within the study, all participants and study locations shall be referred to with pseudonyms, or false names. Before publishing the results, I will provide you with a summary of the results and ask for your insight and confirmation. After the results have been presented to the participants and a consensus has been established between the researcher and the participant of the study that the findings accurately represent the contributions of the participants, the results shall be published as part of the my dissertation, so that other interested people might understand the language learning needs of beginner-level international students in Intensive English programs.

Rights to Refuse or Withdraw

Again, you do not have to participate in this study if you do not wish to do so, and you may choose to leave the study at any time. Your choice of participation shall not affect your continued employment as an administrator or instructor in your institution's Intensive English program.

Who to Contact

If you have any questions, you may ask them of me now, or you may contact me at:

Asst. Prof. Llei Schwartz

120 Belknap Hall

Institute for Language Education

Southern New Hampshire University

2500 North River Road

Manchester, NH 03106

(603) 626-9100 ext. 3384.

l.schwartz@snhu.edu

This proposal has been reviewed and approved by the SNHU IRB, which is a committee whose task it is to make sure that research participants are protected from harm. If you wish to find about more about the IRB, contact Thomas Beraldi at t.beraldi@snhu.edu or 603-645-9695.

Part II: Certificate of Consent

I have been invited to participate in research concerning the language learning needs of international students enrolled in beginner-level courses offered by university-affiliated Intensive English programs.

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have been asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Print Name of Participant _____

Signature of Participant _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

I have witnessed the accurate reading of the consent form to the potential participant, and the individual has had the opportunity to ask questions. I confirm that the individual has given consent freely.

Print name of witness _____

Signature of witness _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

Statement by the researcher/person taking consent

I have accurately read out the information sheet to the potential participant, and to the best of my ability made sure that the participant understands the benefits and risks of the study.

I confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the study, and all the questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability. I confirm that the individual has not been coerced into giving consent, and the consent has been given freely and voluntarily.

A copy of this ICF has been provided to the participant.

Print Name of Researcher/person taking the consent _____

Signature of Researcher /person taking the consent _____

Date _____

Day/month/year

Appendix D

Needs Analysis Questionnaire (Student)

Part I – How Will You Use English?

Directions: Circle the appropriate number to indicate your belief as to how often you will use English in the following situations when you begin your study at an American college and university.

1. Rarely
2. Seldom
3. Sometimes.
4. Often.
5. Very Often.

1. Listening to lectures

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

2. Taking notes during lectures

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. Asking questions during lectures

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. Participating in class discussion

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5. Giving an oral presentation

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

6. Understanding written instructions

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

7. Understanding spoken instructions

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

8. Recording the results of a laboratory experiment

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

9. Reading an assigned text for a class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

10. Taking notes while reading for a class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

11. Summarizing or paraphrasing information from an text for class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

12. Using a dictionary

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

13. Using a library card catalog

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

14. Writing essays, reports, theses and dissertations, or research papers

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

15. Conducting interviews and surveys

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

16. Taking written examinations

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

17. Taking oral examinations

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

18. Using the Internet for research

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

19. Using a computer for word processing

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Part II – How Do You Like to Learn English? (Adapted from Nunan and Lamb, 1996)

Directions: Indicate your attitude toward the following statements about learning by circling the appropriate number

1. This is never, or seldom true for me
2. This is usually not true for me
3. This is sometimes true for me
4. This is usually true for me
5. This is always or often true for me

1. I feel embarrassed, nervous, or shy when the teacher asks me to speak in front of the class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

2. I like to learn by listening

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. I like to learn by reading

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. I like to write everything down when in class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5. I like to learn by playing games in class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

6. I like the teacher to explain grammatical rules

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

7. I like to figure out the grammar rules myself

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

8. I like the teacher to explain the meanings of new words

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

9. I like to find the meaning of new words myself

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

10. I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

11. I like the teacher to let me find my own mistakes

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

12. I like to study by myself

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

13. I like to work in pairs

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

14. I like to work in small groups

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

15. I like to work with the whole class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

16. I like to practice outside of the classroom

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

17. I like to help make decisions about what we will learn in class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

18. I like when the teacher makes all the decision about what we will in class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

19. I like when the teacher makes all the decisions about how we will learn

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

20. I like to be responsible for my own learning

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

21. I like the teacher to explain the objectives of the lesson to me

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

22. I like the teacher to give reasons for what we are learning and how we are learning

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

23. I like to asses my own progress

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

24. I like the teacher to assess my progress for me

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Directions: Indicate your attitude toward the following statements about learning by circling the appropriate number

1. This is never, or seldom true for me
2. This is usually not true for me
3. This is sometimes true for me
4. This is usually true for me
5. This is always or often true for me

-
1. The objectives of the lesson or unit of work are explained to us.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

2. We are helped to set our own objectives

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. The reasons we are learning certain things are explained to us

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. We are given opportunities to choose the content of the lessons

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5. The reasons we are learning in certain ways are explained to us

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

6. We are given opportunities to make choices about how we will learn

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

7. We are given opportunities to assess our own progress

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

8. We are encouraged to practice and learn outside of the classroom

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Part IV – Personal Information

Directions: Please fill out the following information about yourself. Write in English

1. Sex (Circle One): Male/Female
2. Age: _____
3. Intended major or degree: _____
4. Country of Origin: _____
5. Native Language: _____

Thank you for completing this survey!

Appendix E

Needs Analysis Questionnaire (Faculty)

Part I – How Will Your Students Use English?

Directions: Circle the appropriate number to indicate your belief as to how often your international students will find themselves in the following situations when they begin their studies at an American college and university.

1. Rarely
2. Seldom
3. Sometimes.
4. Often.
5. Very Often.

1. Listening to lectures

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

2. Taking notes during lectures

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. Asking questions during lectures

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. Participating in class discussion

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5. Giving an oral presentation

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

6. Understanding written instructions

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

7. Understanding spoken instructions

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

8. Recording the results of a laboratory experiment

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

9. Reading an academic text

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

10. Taking notes while reading

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

11. Summarizing or paraphrasing information from an academic text

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

12. Using a dictionary

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

13. Using a library card catalog (physical or electronic)

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

14. Writing essays, reports, theses and dissertations, or research papers

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

15. Conducting survey research (interviews and questionnaires)

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

16. Taking written examinations

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

17. Taking oral examinations

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

18. Using the Internet for research

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

19. Using a computer for word processing

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Part II – How Do Your Students Like to Learn English? (Adapted from Nunan and Lamb, 1996)

Directions: Indicate your perception of your students' general attitudes toward the following statements about learning by circling the appropriate number

1. This is never, or seldom true for them
2. This is usually not true for them
3. This is sometimes true for them
4. This is usually true for them
5. This is always or often true for them

1. They feel embarrassed when you ask them to speak in front of the class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

2. They like to learn by listening

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. They like to learn by reading

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. They like to write everything down while in class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5. They like to learn by playing games in class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

6. They like you to explain grammatical rules

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

7. They like to figure out the grammar rules by themselves

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

8. They like you to explain the meanings of new words

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

9. They like to find the meaning of new words by themselves

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

10. They like you to tell them all their mistakes

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

11. They like you to let them find their own mistakes

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

12. They like to study by themselves

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

13. They like to work in pairs

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

14. They like to work in small groups

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

15. They like to work with the whole class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

16. They like to practice outside of the classroom

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

17. They like to help make decisions about what will be learnt in the class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

18. They like when you make all the decisions about what is learnt in the class

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

19. They like when you makes all the decisions about how they will learn

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

20. They like to be responsible for their own learning

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

21. They like you to explain the objectives of the lesson to them

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

22. They like you to give reasons for what they are learning and how they are learning

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

23. They like to assess their own progress

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

24. They like you to assess their progress for them

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Part III – The Learning Situation

Directions: Indicate your perception of how closely the following statements describe the learning that occurs in your classes by circling the appropriate number

1. This is never, or seldom true for my class

2.	This is usually not true for my class				
3.	This is sometimes true for my class				
4.	This is usually true for my class				
5.	This is always or often true for my class				
1.	The objectives of the lesson or unit of work are explained to the students.				
	1	2	3	4	5
2.	The students are helped to set their own objectives				
	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The reasons for learning certain things are explained to the students				
	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Students are given opportunities to choose the content of the lessons				
	1	2	3	4	5
5.	The reasons for learning in certain ways are explained to the students				
	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Students are given opportunities to make choices about how they will learn				
	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Students are given opportunities to assess their own progress				
	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Students are encouraged to practice and learn outside of the classroom				
	1	2	3	4	5

 Part IV – Personal Information

Directions: Please fill out the following information about yourself.

- Sex (Circle One): Male/Female
- Age: _____
- Highest level of education completed and degree: _____
- Employment status (Circle One): Full-time/Adjunct (part-time)
- Number of years teaching in this Intensive English program: _____
- Country of Origin: _____
- Native language: _____

Thank you for completing this survey!

Appendix F

Focus Group Protocol

(Adapted from Nation & Macalister, 2010)

Introduction: This focus group is part of a study of the language learning needs of international students in American colleges and universities. What you tell me will help me understand how to better teach English to beginner-level international students. Before coming here today, you had received a consent form to sign that tells me that you agreed to come and speak to me and the other focus group members today. What you say during this focus group interview will be recorded electronically by me, so that I can accurately record and analyze what you say.

Icebreaker: Before we begin, I would like you to introduce yourself by telling me your name, age, what country you come from, and what degree or major you want to study.

Needs Analysis:

1. Why do you need to learn English?
2. How much does it matter if you don't succeed in learning English?
3. What is more important for you to learn: Everyday English or English for university study?
4. What is the most important English skill for you: Reading, Writing, Speaking, or Listening?
5. What is the least important English skill for you: Reading Writing, Speaking, or Listening?
6. After you leave [REDACTED] and enter university, what will you use English for?
7. What do you think you will use English to do while at university?
8. Who will you use English with while at university?
9. In your opinion, to be a student in an American university what English skills or information do you need to know?

10. When not in class, how much time do you spend learning English?
11. What are your English learning habits?
12. Do you like learning alone, in pairs, or in a group?
13. Do you use the “Open Lab” in Room 267b? If, so it is useful to you?
14. Do you practice your English outside of class? If so, how (e.g., radio, subtitled-films, etc.?)
15. What do you use to help you learn English? (e.g., dictionary, radio and TV programs, newspapers, grammars, contact with native speakers?)
16. Other than your teachers, do you know native English speakers with whom you can practice English?

Closing and Debrief: Thank you for your participation in this focus group today. From our discussion, we learned (summarize major/interesting observations), and we thank you for sharing that information with us. If you have any questions about what we did today, you may contact Assistant Professor Llei Schwartz by email at l.schwartz@snhu.edu or by phone at 603-626-9100 ext. 2667

Appendix G

Faculty Needs Analysis Interview Guide

This interview is being conducted as part of a language learning needs analysis so that we can learn how to teach beginner-level international students English more effectively. You have received a consent form to sign, which indicates your consent to this interview. This interview will be recorded, is that acceptable to you? (If consent reaffirmed – begin recording) “Thank you, [name] for your willingness to allow me to record our discussion today.”)

1. In your opinion, what have been the motivations for learning English of the beginner-level students you have taught?
 - a. From what you have observed, how much does it matter to your beginner-level students if they don't succeed in learning English?
 - b. From what you have observed, have your beginner-level students been more motivated to learn social, everyday English or academic English?
 - c. What has been the general attitude of your beginner-level students towards your courses?
2. From your understanding, how will your students use English once they enter their regular course of study?
3. From what you have observed, how do your beginner-level students learn?
 - a. Have you noticed any commonalities in the learning backgrounds of your beginner-level students?
 - b. How have your beginner-level students conceptualized teaching and learning?
 - c. What methodologies/techniques have appealed to them?
 - d. What methodologies/techniques have they found boring or alienating?

4. What have been some of the more common majors or degree programs that your beginner-level students have expressed interest in pursuing?
5. From your experience, with whom will your students use English once they leave your program?
6. In what places will your students use English once they leave your program?
7. What materials or teaching aids does your program have that are specifically geared towards beginning-level instruction?
8. From what you have observed, how many teachers in your program would you describe as being skilled in teaching beginner-level students?
9. What opportunities for out-of-class learning does your program offer to beginner-level students?
10. Who are your learners?
 - a. Have you noticed any trends in age, sex, or nationality among the beginning-level students you have taught?
 - b. What, in anything, do your beginner-level students already know about English when they enter your class?
 - c. What subject-area knowledge do they have?
 - d. What are their interests?
 - e. What teaching styles are they used to?
 - f. What has been their general attitude towards English and native English speakers?
11. What adjectives would you use to describe the surroundings where your courses take place?

12. In your opinion, what would be the optimal amount of classroom time for beginner students per week?
 - a. The optimal amount of time spent doing homework?
 - b. The optimal amount of time spent in private study?
13. If you had to choose, would you describe yourself primarily as [REDACTED] faculty or [REDACTED] faculty? What is the reasoning behind your choice?
14. Do you ever feel any tension between being part of [REDACTED] and being part of [REDACTED]?
15. As an [REDACTED] faculty member, how secure do you feel in your position?
16. Do you feel [REDACTED] is respected within [REDACTED]?

Appendix H

Mission Statement

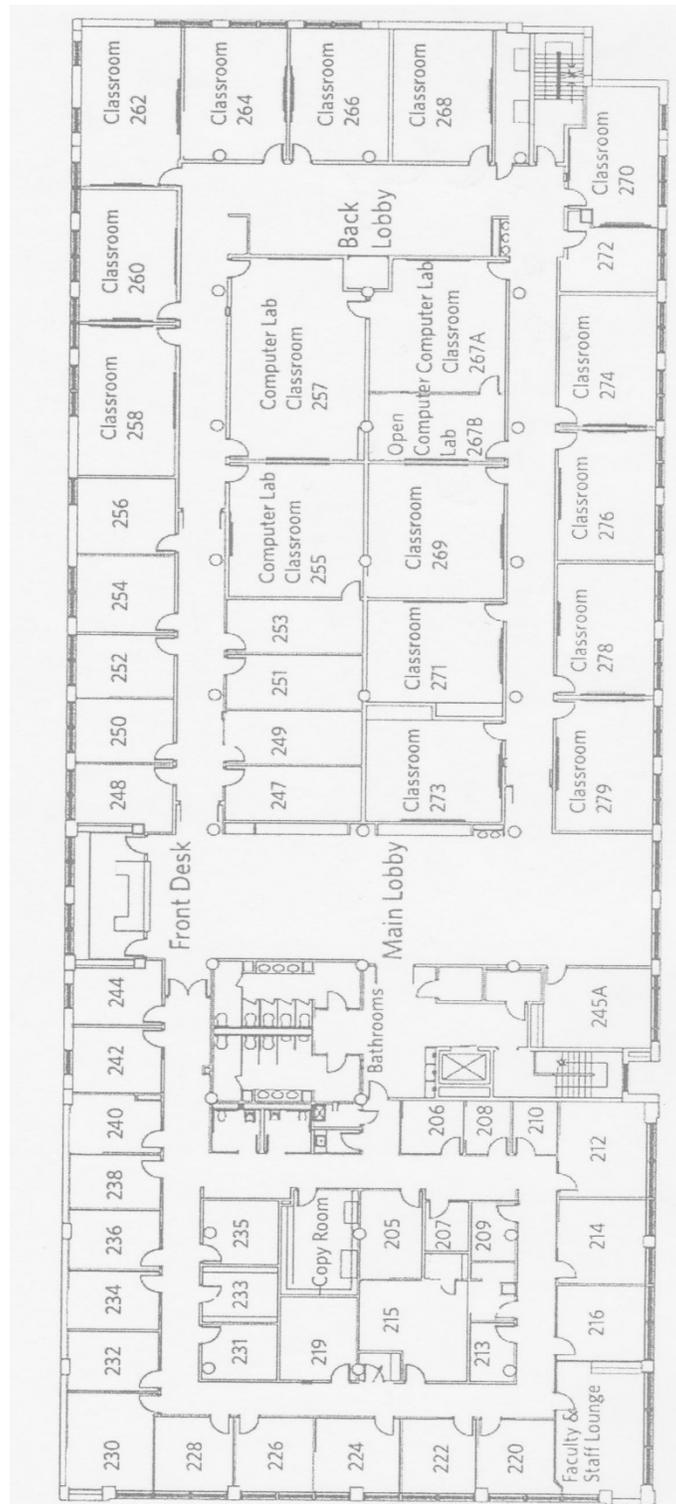
The mission of the [REDACTED] is to help international students and professionals succeed in their academic and work lives by offering programs that enhance their English language and cultural competence. As a division of [REDACTED], [REDACTED] upholds the University's long-standing commitment to international education and to the promotion of global understanding and goodwill. [REDACTED] faculty and staff also strive to serve as a model for the advancement of professional standards and quality instruction in Intensive English programs at universities and colleges in the United States. To achieve our goals:

1. [REDACTED]'s highly qualified and experienced faculty is dedicated to providing English language instruction which is responsive to the specific needs of the student population with particular emphasis on academic and professional preparation. The [REDACTED] makes every effort to provide the students with an optimal learning environment, including the most effective pedagogical methods and instructional materials, the latest technology, and modern office and classroom facilities.
2. [REDACTED]'s professionally trained administrative staff is committed to providing support services essential to student adjustment in the United States. Through organized social, cultural, and educational activities, the Center fosters adaptation to and competence in participation in American life. Professional academic advisors guide students in formulating their academic plans related to American colleges and universities, and [REDACTED] immigration counselors communicate current immigration regulations to students.

3. [REDACTED] fully supports and promotes the ongoing professional development of the faculty and staff. [REDACTED] is dedicated to maintaining program excellence, fostering high faculty and staff morale, and keeping pace with changing trends in the field of international education and the teaching of English as a second language.
4. [REDACTED] faculty and staff share responsibility for institutional governance. They strive to foster an organizational and educational environment at the [REDACTED] that is characterized by mutual respect and understanding, fairness, and open communication among all members of the faculty, staff, and student body.

Appendix I

Map of Classrooms and Offices of the ELDI



Appendix J

Faculty Participant Biographies

Carmen McClanahan

Carmen is a white female in her early forties who has been teaching for 20 years; she has taught in Europe and at several colleges in the New England area. In addition to her teaching, Carmen is a prolific writer of English as a Second or Other Language (ESOL) instructional materials, having authored several popular textbooks for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) for a well-known publishing house. Carmen wrote in her faculty biography of her belief that better language learning occurs when students are encouraged to collaborate and be intellectually curious; as such, she stated that she endeavors to create such an atmosphere in her classroom. Carmen is married and has three children; she listed her hobbies and interests as reading, film, writing fiction, and travel.

Lori Belz

Lori is a white female in her mid-forties who has held various positions in international multicultural education during a career that has spanned for over two decades. Beginning with an experience as a volunteer in West Africa with the Peace Corps, Lori then went on to earn her Master's degree in Teaching English as a Second or Other Language (TESOL) from a small college in northern New England known for its TESOL program. Since then, she has held positions as an ESOL instructor, teacher educator, academic program manager, university lecturer, curriculum writer, and professional development trainer. She also has had experience supervising Master's degree candidates' teaching internships, as well as having established teacher training sites in both the United States and around the world. In her faculty biography, Lori wrote that during her graduate studies, she was introduced to a learner-centered educational

philosophy that places importance on student-student interaction. As an ESOL teacher, Lori cited her strengths as flexibility, interest in cross-cultural communication and understanding, and a focus on problem-solving. Lori also noted in her biography that she enjoys bicycling and tropical weather.

Anna Trudel

Anna is a white female in her late forties who has been teaching since 1993. Anna possesses a Master's of Education degree from a small liberal arts college in New England as well as a Graduate Certificate in TESOL from Miskatonic University. Before earning her Master's degree, Anna began her teaching career in Japan; during that time, she had the opportunity to travel to several other countries. After earning her graduate degree, Anna began teaching in the ELDI ten years ago. When not teaching, Anna continues to study Japanese; Anna cited her continued experience as a student of another language as informing her teaching practice. In her faculty biography, Anna wrote that her teaching philosophy is formulated from her teaching experience, professional training, and findings from research in TESOL; as such, she seeks to adapt her teaching style to meet the needs of her students. As part of meeting student needs, Anna explained that she uses various modalities, including music and drama, to provide for differentiated instruction. Additionally, Anna described her teaching methodology as one that is communicatively based and learner centered, and that employs language learning activities in which students communicate on topics salient to their lives and interests.

Linda Allen

Linda is a white female in her forties who currently holds an adjunct instructor's position at the ELDI. According to her faculty biography, Linda holds several degrees and certifications, including a Master of Arts in Teaching Spanish and ESOL, as well as a Bachelor of Science and

a Bachelor of Arts degrees in Developmental and Applied Psychology. She is also a certified Yoga instructor. Linda had a career in social work before entering the field of education; originally a Spanish, Latin, and French teacher, she received training to teach ESOL through the pursuit of her Master's degree. According to Linda's faculty biography, she taught in international schools in Oman for several years; additionally, she has been a teacher trainer and international student coordinator for six years, and has taught psychology during her career as well. In her faculty biography, Linda attributed her interest in ESOL to her own culturally diverse background and to her early exposure to different cultures and languages, having first traveled internationally at the age of five. Her teaching philosophy, as described in her faculty biography, places great importance on language learning motivation; in particular, she expressed her belief that good language learning stems from the establishment of rapport between teacher and student, the development of intercultural competence, allowing students the opportunity to develop their own language learning strategies, and having students engage in material relevant to their own lives and experiences. Linda reported that when she isn't teaching, she enjoys painting, photography, writing, and long boarding.

Arthur Ames

Arthur is a white male in his mid-thirties who originally hails from the southwest of the United States. After earning a Bachelor of Arts in English Literature from a state university in the Southwest, he participated in the Masters International Program offered by the Peace Corps, in which he spent two years in Ukraine. After his Peace Corps experience, he returned to the United States where he completed a graduate degree in Applied Linguistics and English as a Second Language at a state university in the Southeast; afterwards, he taught ESL at a fine arts school in the area. Recently, he served as an English Language Fellow in a university in

Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. Before being hired as the Associate Director for Academic Programs at the ELDI, he served as the interim director of a postsecondary ESL program located at a public university in the Southwest. Additionally, he currently serves as a site reviewer with the Commission on English Language Program Accreditation (CEA) and has served as the vice-president of a local affiliate of TESOL International.

Appendix K

Letter of Introduction

Dear Colleague:

My name is Tim Dimatteo, and I am the chair of Southern New Hampshire University's Intensive English Program. I am writing to you today to ask for your kind consideration in assisting my colleague, Llej Schwartz, with his dissertation research. Mr. Schwartz is an assistant professor of TESOL in our department and a doctoral candidate in our institution's School of Education. The topic of his research is the language learning needs of beginner-level international students enrolled in intensive English programs, and he is looking for a suitable program in which to situate his case study. As there is much evidence to suggest that the number of international students with a beginner-level of English proficiency present on American campuses continues to grow, I am sure that you would agree with me that the findings of Mr. Schwartz's study have the potential to improve the facilitation of our programs as we continue to adapt to serve the needs of our population of students.

If you agree to allow Mr. Schwartz to study your program, he would only require a minimal amount of time from your students and faculty; specifically, he intends to a short questionnaire to both your students and faculty, run a focus group with 5 to 7 students, and conduct face to face interviews with faculty. Furthermore, he would conduct a series of on-site observations and request copies of any relevant course materials or documents that would assist him in understanding how your program's students and faculty perceive the language learning needs of beginners. I have known Mr. Schwartz for almost 8 years, and I have found him to be a serious scholar and researcher who possesses the expertise to conduct this research effectively and ethically.

I thank you for your consideration, and kindly request that you direct any questions or queries you may have to Mr. Schwartz, who can be reached via email (l.schwartz@snhu.edu) or by phone at (603) 626-9100 ext. 2667.

Sincerely,

Tim Dimatteo
Chair, Intensive English Program
Institute for Language Education, Southern New Hampshire University