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**THE DISSERTATION COMMITTEE FOR YOONHEE CHOE CERTIFIES THAT THIS IS
THE APPROVED VERSION OF THE FOLLOWING DISSERTATION:**

**Effects of a Study Abroad Teacher Training Program on
the Language, Identity, Affect, and Intercultural Competence
of Korean Teachers of English**

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**Effects of a Study Abroad Teacher Training Program on
the Language, Identity, Affect, and Intercultural Competence of
Korean Teachers of English**

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DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
The University of Texas at Austin
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

MAY 2011

DEDICATION

To my father and my mother

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Completing this dissertation would have been impossible without the support and help of numerous individuals. First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest appreciation and respect to my advisors, Dr. Thomas J. Garza and Dr. Diane L. Schallert. A special word of gratitude goes to my supervisor, Dr. Thomas J. Garza for his keen insights and unwavering encouragement. I want to then thank Dr. Diane Schallert for her warm-hearted encouragement as well as her keen insights, expertise, and advice. She made me realize the joy of doing research and writing this dissertation during the whole process. Thanks to her, I was always able to be happy and confident about my research. I really enjoyed my time discussing my data with her. I was so fortunate to have these two very knowledgeable individuals guiding my research.

I would also like to express my deepest gratitude and respect to my academic advisor and committee member, Dr. Elaine K. Horwitz. Since I began my doctoral program, she has gone beyond acting only as my graduate advisor. Her full support and thought-provoking questions concerning my research helped me shape my research better and better. I am forever thankful for her warm-hearted caring and suggestions.

I am also extremely thankful for my supportive and encouraging dissertation committee. I am thankful to Dr. Gary Borich. His course provided me with a better picture of program evaluation. Thanks to him, I realized the joy of doing quantitative research. I am humbly indebted to Dr. Orlando Kelm for his wonderful suggestions and unfailing encouragement. Also, I would like to thank Dr. Lia Plakans who gave me wonderful insights for shaping my research.

I would like to extend my sincere appreciation to my professors, Dr. Jin Wan Kim, Dr. Oryang Kwon, Dr. Moonsu Shin, Dr. Hyunkwon Yang, Dr. Hyunkee Ahn, Dr. Byungmin Lee, and Dr. Sunyoung Oh at Seoul National University to help me start on this amazing journey to academia, my doctoral program at UT. Also, I would like to thank my professors, Dr. Chungbae Kim, Dr. Deokki Kim, Dr. Myunghye Huh, Dr. Taegu Chung, Dr. Doseon Uh, Dr. Jihyun Jeon, Dr. Seokmu, Choi, and Dr. Daebong Kwon who gave me unwavering encouragement and helped me see the joy of doing research in FLE in my undergraduate years.

There are numerous other wonderful teachers and friends who helped me continue my research. I cannot mention these individually by name due to space but I will forever feel grateful for their support and help.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my family, especially my mother and father. Their endless love and unconditional support made me continue my study and fulfill a dream I had had since I was a kid. Also, I would like to thank all my participants for their friendship and enthusiasm in their role as participant in the program and then in my research. I really enjoyed talking and being with them. Without their sincere participation, sharing their thoughts, fears and joys with me, I would not have completed my research.

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Publication No. _____

Yoonhee Choe, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2011

Supervisor: Thomas J. Garza

This study investigated the linguistic, affective, and intercultural outcomes of a four-week study abroad program for Korean teachers of English offered through a U.S. southwestern university. In an effort to understand better what the 42 participants experienced during their study abroad, mixed methods including quantitative and qualitative data analysis, were used. To measure the participants' linguistic development, pretest and posttest measures of Listening, Reading, Structure, Speaking, and Writing were administered by the study abroad program. Also, participants responded to Self-Assessment questionnaires developed by the National Language Service Corps that asked them to assess the degree to which their reading, speaking, and listening had improved. The participants' daily journal entries were collected throughout the program, and some

of the participants were interviewed at the beginning, at the middle, and at the end of the program on a volunteer basis.

For the quantitative data analysis, the pretest and posttest scores of each measure were statistically compared by using MANOVA with follow-up ANOVA tests. Except for the reading scores, the other four measures showed significant improvement from pretest to posttest. For the Self-Assessment questionnaire, most participants checked only a few items as having improved. Interestingly, a few perceived that they had become less able to do some of the listening and speaking items over the program. These findings can be explained as resulting from overestimation before this program or as a result of increase in self-monitoring processes during the program.

Through the constant comparison method (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), four themes emerged from analysis of the qualitative data. First, many participants were motivated to improve their English proficiency and increase authentic contacts with local people, with various sources shaping their motivation. Second, they increased their awareness of cultural and linguistic differences between the United States and Korea. Third, some participants showed a feeling of resistance to the dominant culture represented by native English-speaking instructors of the program. Fourth, at the end of the program, many showed improved intercultural competence.

Results provide some theoretical, methodological, pedagogical, and policy implications for study abroad researchers, participants, and program instructors.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiii
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Social context for a study abroad teacher training program	3
1.2 Rationale of this research	4
1.3 Research Questions	8
Chapter II: Literature Review	9
2.1 Theoretical framework	9
2.1.1 Language, Thought, and Dialogicality	9
2.1.2 Language, Culture, and Intercultural dialogue	10
2.1.3 Zone of Proximal Development and Outsideness	12
2.1.4 The role of the other in identity, language, and cultural development. ...	13
2.1.5 Language and sociocultural dimension	14
2.2 Study Abroad and Theories in Second Language Acquisition	15
2.3 Individual differences in achievement outcomes while abroad	18
2.4 Language development while abroad	23
2.5 Language Development Measures	28
2.5.1 Oral Proficiency Interview	28
2.5.2 Listening assessment	30
2.5.3 Literacy skills measurement (Reading and Writing)	32
2.5.4 Pragmatics	34
2.6 Intercultural Development	36
2.6.1 Operational Definition of the Construct	37
CHAPTER III: Method	39
3.1 Overview of the Study Abroad Teacher Training Program	39
3.1.1 Program Evaluation	43

3.2 The Main Research	45
3.2.1 Participants.....	50
3.2.2 Researcher Bracketing	50
3.2.3 Pilot Studies	51
3.2.4 Data Sources	53
3.3 Data Collection and Procedures.....	58
3.3.1 Time Schedule	58
3.4 Data Analysis	59
CHAPTER IV: Results	63
4.1 Quantitative Results	63
4.2 Qualitative Results	71
4.2.1 How the participants' motivation was shaped by their study abroad Journey	72
4.2.2 Increased Awareness of Cultural and Linguistic Differences.....	77
4.2.3 Resistance to the dominant culture represented by native instructors. ...	93
4.2.4 Improvement on the participants' Intercultural Competence and Intercultural Sensitivity.....	98
4.2.5 Comparisons with participants in a domestic teacher training program	100
CHAPTER V: Discussion	102
5.1 Summary of the findings.....	102
5.1.1 Quantitative data analysis 1	102
5.1.2 Quantitative data analysis 2	103
5.2. Main Themes in Light of Pre-existing Theories	107
5.2.1 Increased Motivation triggered by internal and external sources	107
5.2.2 Increased Awareness of the Cultural and Linguistic differences.....	119
5.2.3 Resistance to the Dominant Culture as represented by native English Speaking instructors.....	127
5.2.4. Culture Shock	137
5.2.5 Increased Intercultural Competences.....	142

5.3 Limitations	148
5.4 Implications.....	148
5.4.1 Theoretical Implications	148
5.4.2 Methodological Implications	151
5.4.3 Pedagogical Implications.....	151
5.4.4. Policy Implications	153
5.5 Further research	153
5.6 Conclusions.....	155
Appendix A.....	157
Appendix B.....	162
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	164
Vita.....	181

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Overview of the Assessment of Proficiency Development	29
Table 2.2 Overview of Assessment of Listening Comprehension.....	31
Table 2.3 Overview of the Assessment of reading and writing.....	34
Table 3.1 Component of the test for pre-and post-test.....	55
Table 3.2 Time Schedule of Data Gathering	59
Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics of Test scores of Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, and Structure	63
Table 4.2 Individual ANOVA's main effect of time for five dependent measures	64
Table 4.3 Descriptive Statistics of three measures' Self Assessments at the end of Program.....	68
Table 4.4 The Daily Schedule of the Study Abroad program.....	74
Table 4.5 Summary of the main themes emerging from analysis of the qualitative data in this study	101
Table 5.1 Culture Shock stages and symptoms proposed by Adler in 1975.....	139

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1 Overview of study abroad teacher training program.....	41
Figure 3.2 Program decomposition of this study abroad teacher training program.....	45
Figure 4.1 Listening, Structure, and Reading scores of Pretest and Posttest.....	65
Figure 4.2 Speaking and Writing scores of Pretest and Posttest	66
Figure 5.1 Three main sources of Motivation in this study	108
Figure 5.2 The Development of Motivation from an Activity Theory perspective...	112
Figure 5.3 Summary of various sources of Motivation	118
Figure 5.4 Increased Awareness of Cultural and Linguistic differences in various sources of Motivation	121
Figure 5.5 Summary of changes of intercultural competencies among participants ..	135
Figure 5.6 Process of dealing with cultural shock according to Adler (1975)	138

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As President Obama stated in his State of the Union Speech in 2011, the United States is the country which has the most students from all over the world who come here to study. Over 672,000 international students were enrolled in U.S. universities and colleges from 2007 to 2008. Students from Asia such as India, China, and Korea make up 57% of the enrolled international students in the United States according to the U.S. Department of Education. Also, approximately 262,000 U.S. students participated in various study abroad programs from 2007 to 2008. With their significantly increasing population, study abroad programs have recently gained much interest not only in the United States but also in many other European and Asian countries. Many U.S. undergraduates go abroad to learn new languages and cultures. Some American universities' administrators have proposed that the number of required courses to be taken at home universities should be reduced, and instead some required courses should be taken abroad in the students' target countries. This phenomenon is in line with the ideas that language learning may be maximized if it takes place in socially and culturally embedded contexts. From this perspective, many Korean learners of English go abroad to learn English as a global language and spend a month, a semester, or a year in English-speaking countries. Not only undergraduates exchange students but also many young students, of varying ages and grades, are participating in study abroad programs.

As the number of study abroad programs has continued to increase, so has the interest in research on language learning in these contexts (DuFon & Churchill, 2006). However, there has been less research on the students who study in the United States as compared to students who go to other countries, stay there, and study abroad. Furthermore, there has been little research on the outcomes of study abroad programs focused on the relationship between English language learning as a global language and the participants' experiences as well as on changes in their affect, views of themselves, and intercultural sensitivity over the course of the study abroad program.

Freed's (1995) "Language Acquisition in a study abroad context" was a ground breaking book in 1995. After her book, many researchers tried to investigate the effects of study abroad programs in terms of the participants' progress in oral fluency gains, literacy skills, accuracy and pragmatics of the target language. Although previous researchers have more often focused on the participants' linguistic gains, the results have not always been consistent, and other significant factors have been suggested that need investigation in determining the success of language learning while abroad. Recently, second language researchers (Dufon & Churchill, 2006; Garcia, 2006; Jackson, 2008; Kinginger, 2008) have studied and described how second language learning happens in relation to language learners' motivation, attitude toward the target culture, their contact with local people, and their identity. Informed by these studies, I set out to investigate participants' language development along with any change in their motivation, their cultural sensitivity, and their identity over time, when enrolled in a study abroad program in the United States. I attempted to overcome the limitations of previous research that did not connect the learners' second (target) language development with their cultural

sensitivity and their identity. Therefore, I see my research as an attempt to bridge the gap between macro-level analyses of second language learners that did not analyze the individual learners' experiences and attitudes on the one hand, and on the other hand, socially oriented micro-level studies that qualitatively describe learners' positions toward their acquisition experience without understanding specific linguistic outcomes (Lafford, 2008).

1.1. Social context for a study abroad teacher training program

Because the participants in my study were from Korea, the context from which they came must be understood. In 1997, English education was introduced at a primary level in Korea, and the Korea Ministry of Education and Human Resources announced that English should be taught as a communicative medium for the younger generation. Accordingly, the newly revised 7th National Curriculum (1997) stated that the purpose of English education is “to develop students’ basic communicative competence to understand and speak English” and “to appreciate diverse cultures through earlier exposure to English.” Under these revised objectives for English education, a policy of Teaching English in English (TEE) was recommended to and required of in-service English teachers in public schools.

For the last decade, the Korean government has continued to develop and provide various types of English teacher training program to help in-service teachers to improve their English skills and teaching method skills. The national education report, however, indicated that TEE practices were not favored by Korean teachers of English, and their use of English in the classroom was mostly limited to simple classroom English.

As social and parental demands for higher English proficiency of the younger generation increased, the Ministry of Education mandated TEE practices in the country's public schools. At the same time, the Korean government came to the conclusion that proper levels of English proficiency and teaching skills on the side of English teachers is crucial to promoting TEE practices in classrooms and to meet various demands within Korean educational contexts.

To reflect these objectives, the Ministry of Education decided to initiate a one-month study abroad English teacher training program, to be followed by a 5-month long domestic immersion intensive program for in-service Korean teachers of English. Details of the program were as follows: Every year, 500 teachers would participate. For this period, they would be exempt from their teaching practice. While abroad, they would be required to attend courses customized by a teacher training program instituted in a local area and to visit local schools to promote their intercultural competence. By participating in this intensive teacher training program, they are expected to improve their English communicative competence, intercultural competence, and teaching English in English skills. In addition, they were anticipated to develop their professional skills such as computer literacy skills and presentation skills for future teaching practices. Once they completed their domestic program, their abroad program began. My study was concerned with the study abroad component of the program.

1.2. Rationale for the study

In this section, I discuss three aspects of the rationale of this study, why it was needed, and how it filled gaps in the previous literature. First, there is a paucity of

research on continuing in-service teacher training programs for foreign language teachers. Second, outcomes of study abroad in-service teacher training programs for foreign language teachers have rarely been investigated even though reports and descriptions of study abroad teacher training programs can be found (Allen, 2010). Third, there is a scarcity of research of study abroad experiences using both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

The importance of teaching and significant impact of teachers on students' academic performances has been emphasized not only in the United States but also in many Asian countries for many years (the State of the Union Speech, 2011). Although it is broadly accepted that teachers must continue to develop their teaching skills and improve their knowledge, this is especially true of foreign language teachers because of the unique characteristics of teaching a foreign language. Languages are ever changing, and teachers who do not use the foreign language regularly may lose facility with it. However, there is a "woeful paucity" (Allen, 2010, p. 93) of studies on continuing teacher education for foreign language teachers, even though there are many studies of general teachers' professional development. Furthermore, teachers, especially, foreign language teachers, have been under heavy pressures of social demands from Ministries of Education, school districts, administrators, and parents. One of the most deeply felt social pressures for foreign language teachers is the requirement to maintain a high level of proficiency. In addition, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards states that accomplished foreign language teachers are those who are highly proficient in their target language and who understand the relationship between their target culture and target language (Allen, 2011). However, foreign language teachers' use of the target

language is very limited to their classrooms, so it is very common that foreign language teachers “fail to receive the stimulation of carrying out tasks and discussing the adult topics and content that define performances at Advanced and Superior levels of proficiency (ACTFL scale)” (Philips, 1991, p. 2). Thus, foreign language teachers need opportunities to develop and refresh their target language proficiency and update their target culture knowledge through continuing teacher training programs (Allen, 2010). Furthermore, research on in-service teacher training programs should be conducted in order to help devise better programs for meeting the social demands on teachers and their teaching practices in their class.

Second, in the foreign language education field, study abroad is commonly regarded as one of the best choices to develop a learner’s foreign language proficiency. Thus, many U.S. college students are encouraged to participate in study abroad programs when they are in the second or third year of their college studies. Though less common, study abroad in-service teacher training programs for foreign language teachers also can be found. However, the research of the impact or effects of study abroad in-service teacher training programs on the participants’ language, affect, views of themselves as foreign language teachers, and their intercultural sensitivity has been rare. In addition, although there have been a few studies on outcomes of American foreign language teachers (in-service or pre-service) in study abroad programs, research conducted on study abroad programs for foreign teachers has been scarce, including study abroad programs for Korean teachers of English.

Third, previous studies have focused on and examined a few particular outcomes, generally limited to listening, speaking, writing, reading, and pragmatics. Many of these

have tried to investigate linguistic outcomes of study abroad programs by administering formal language measures such as an Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). However, formal assessments cannot guarantee capturing participants' developmental process in terms of language, affect, and intercultural sensitivity.

My study synthesized the many factors that go into linguistic development. The prior literature in this field tended to focus on the effectiveness of long term study abroad. So far, short term study abroad seems to have been neglected. In addition, the typical participants in previous studies were mostly undergraduate students. However, my research participants were foreign language teachers, so their language proficiency levels were more advanced than those of undergraduate students. In addition, I attempted to investigate not only the effectiveness of a four-week study abroad program on the foreign language teachers' language improvement but also on how the participants had changed their affect, intercultural sensitivity competence, and their views of themselves as foreign language teachers. Furthermore, the study abroad program was described more in depth including its objectives, inputs, and constraints by using program evaluation approaches (Borich, 2009). More importantly, I attempted to investigate the effects of the short term teacher training program, using a mixed method (quantitative and qualitative) approach. Specifically, I compared pretest and posttest scores of each measure including listening, speaking, reading, writing, and structure using an omnibus MANOVA test. In addition, the self assessment questionnaires developed by the National Language Corps Services were administered to examine to what extent the participants perceived they had improved their listening, speaking, and reading. To compensate for the limitations of quantitative data methodology, the participants' daily journal entries, interviews, and

reflection journals were collected and analyzed in order to determine what the participants had experienced in this study abroad program and how these experiences affected their motivation, their views of themselves as foreign language teachers, and their intercultural sensitivity competence.

1.3. Research Questions

The particular research questions I explored were the following:

1.3.1. To what extent will the participants develop their linguistic competence as a result of a four-week study abroad teacher training program?

a. Is there a change in speaking and writing skills as measured by native English speaking interviewers using holistic rubrics including fluency and accuracy?

b. Is there a change in listening, reading, and structure skills as measured by pre- and post web-based tests?

1.3.2 To what extent will the participants perceive they would improve their listening, speaking, and reading through this study abroad program?

1.3.3. To what extent will affect, defined here as motivation, change as a result of a study abroad experience?

a. What kinds of sources of motivation are interacting to shape the participants' motivation?

b. How are these sources of motivation interacting to shape their motivation?

1.3.4 To what extent will the participants develop their intercultural sensitivity by the end of program?

1.3.5 What will the participants experience during this study abroad program?

1.3.6 How will their views of themselves as foreign language teachers change over the course of the program?

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Theoretical framework

This study is grounded in contemporary sociocultural theory. Its core theoretical framework is borrowed from sociocultural theory, emphasizing the organic links among language, culture, and human activity (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). The research is focused on how language learning, which cannot be separated from cultural learning and language use, is happening in a study abroad context. An additional interest is to explain how language learning is sometimes facilitated and inhibited in relation to the learner's affect and cultural sensitivity over time.

2.1.1. Language, Thought, and Dialogicality

From a sociocultural perspective, a central notion is that language is a “linguistic tool for thought,” and serves as a significant means of social activity. In Vygotsky's view, humans use symbolic artifacts to establish mediated relationships between the self and the world. For Vygotsky (1978), cognitive development and higher order psychological thinking functions such as language are socially and culturally determined and situated. Through sustained participation in culturally organized practices, humans gradually learn the communicative intentions and specific perspectives that are embedded in the culture (Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, human learning and thinking processes should be located in a particular “activity setting.” In other words, the

structured social networks and cultural practices available to learners should be acknowledged as influencing human learning in these environments (Lantolf, 2006). Furthermore, Vygotsky (1978) focused on discourse and interaction between real interlocutors engaged in educational activities within particular sociocultural and historical contexts.

In line with Vygotsky's view, Bakhtin (1981) claimed that dialogue is the very foundation of culture and human development. In his view, dialogue is the special form of interaction that lies at the center of our existence. Throughout his life, Bakhtin claimed that the study of the language and culture should address dialogic relations between culture, between people, and between an individual and his or her own culture in particular social contexts. He argued that these relations, as well as language and culture development, must be connected to the notion of identity and difference between self and the other.

Synthesizing Vygotskian and Bakhtinian claims, I investigated in this study how language learners develop their language competence, intercultural competence, and their affect through their participation in a study abroad program.

2.1.2. Language, Culture, and Intercultural dialogue

Another similarity (congruence) between Vygotsky and Bakhtin can be found in terms of their understanding of culture and its role in language learning development (Jackson, 2007). Vygotsky saw culture as an outcome of social processes that are shaped by human interaction. In his view, higher psychological functions such as language result as products of processes that occur within a particular culture and historical context. From this view, the acquisition of culture and the development of "a culture mind" are

the ultimate goal of human learning. In this perspective, learners when studying abroad are exposed (located) fully in the target culture and the target language, which are the object of their goals. Thus, when we examine how learners develop and acquire their second language, we should not neglect the connection between learners' cultural development and language learning.

As mentioned above, Bakhtin also thought of culture as a product of human interaction. In his view, intercultural communication is vital for human development, including self-awareness. Given the dialogic nature of culture, Bakhtin claimed that we cannot fully comprehend a culture in the absence of contact with other ways of life. Furthermore, as Jackson (2008) described, Bakhtin claimed that intercultural contact is beneficial for both interlocutors because it would enhance awareness and appreciation of self and the other. Therefore, extending the dialogic notion of mutuality and enrichment would seem warranted in a study abroad context.

Another aspect of Bakhtin's work that has implications for intercultural dialogue is his perception of the "situated nature of discourse." He claimed that every utterance is shaped and developed within a certain genre form. According to Sampson (1993), genre is not simply ways of speaking but ways of seeing, knowing, and understanding. Different genres place us in some different worlds and provide perspectives for experiencing the world, including ourselves and other.

If one cannot understand the speech genre that is culturally appropriate in a particular situation, miscommunication and misunderstanding are apt to occur. Bakhtin mentioned that this may threaten one's ego, identity, self-image and willingness to communicate and interact with others in the future. It would be reasonable to expect

that such a fate might befall L2 sojourners who routinely find themselves in situations that are linguistically and culturally unfamiliar to them. However, in a language immersion program in the home context and in the formal classroom context, miscommunications do occur very often. Thus, Bakhtin's claim points to the need to study critical incidents and pragmatic failures in intercultural encounters in a study abroad context in relation to their ego and self-awareness.

2.1.3 Zone of Proximal Development and Outsideness

One of the Vygotsky's (1978) contributions to cultural and educational psychology is the concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which is defined as "the distance between the actual development as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p,86). He claimed that participation, collaboration, and social interaction are core element of the ZPD. From Vygotsky's perspective, we assume that learners who interact with more capable peers are more likely to extend their zone of proximal development. Because they are interacting with more knowledgeable people in terms of language proficiency, thus, learners in a study abroad program have more chances to extend their zone of proximal development. However, the results of previous research have not been consistently positive, implying that other factors have been neglected in studies of language development occurring during study abroad experiences.

The parallel concept to Vygotsky's ZPD is Bakhtin's "outsidedness." Both involve at least two interlocutors who are different. For Bakhtin, difference is a vital element in the process of communication. He believed that interlocutors should enter the

other culture and attempt to “see the world through its eye.” This is akin to the “ethnorelative perspective” advocated by interculturalists. Bakhtin extended this notion by advising interlocutors to remain outside the other culture, developing their own unique perspective. He viewed dialogue as an opportunity for learning and personal expansion of both interlocutors, irrespective of age, experience, or level of expertise. Bakhtin argued that if they are truly open to this process, significant personal growth could happen in both interlocutors. Through the dialogue with people from other linguistic and cultural backgrounds, he claimed that one may be exposed to new ideas, utterances, values, and world views. Furthermore, he claimed that learning another language and culture offers ways to broaden and enrich the self. From this view, study abroad experiences provide an opportunity not only for the language learners but also the host families, friends, and host society to be enriched.

2.1.4. The role of the other in identity, language, and cultural development

Dialogue plays a significant role in the formation of the self, the development of one’s identity. Vygotsky (1978) saw identity as evolving in a linear way through the maturation process. He mentioned that the individual self is forming through internalization of the sociocultural environment. Thus, through dialogic interaction in a study abroad program, learners have many chances to expand their self-identity and their cultural development, which are vital elements for human learning.

In Bakhtin’s view, the process of personal expansion and identification can take place only through contact with the other. “I’m conscious of myself and become myself only while revealing myself for another, through another, with the help of another.”

(Bakhtin, 1984, p.287). In his eyes, one's identity is continually subject to change through interaction with others and is virtually "unfinalizable" (Jackson, 2008). Additionally, he claimed that "one voice alone concludes nothing and decides nothing, two voices are the minimum in life for existence" (1987, p.278).

Learning in study abroad contexts is a changing, ongoing, and unfinalizable process through interaction with others. By engaging in dialogue with others throughout our lives, Bakhtin claimed, we shape and reshape our sense of self. Exposure to others in study abroad context would make an impact on self-expansion, bring about new ways of perceiving the world, and extend learners' zone of proximal development.

2.1.5. Language and sociocultural dimension

From a sociocultural perspective, what and how we learn is shaped by our history of lived experiences in our communicative environment (Jackson, 2008). For this reason, when we learn a language, we are also learning a culture and forming our sense of identity and self (Norton, 2000). In other words, language learning is influenced, to varying degrees, by the social, historical, economic, cultural, and political contexts of learners. Language learning engages the identities of learners because language itself is not only a linguistic system of signs and symbols but also a complex social practice. Thus, language learners are learning not only a linguistic system but also a diverse set of sociocultural practices, often best understood in the context of wider relations of power (Hall, 2002).

The acquisition of language and social and cultural competence are not developmentally independent processes. The two processes are "intertwined" (Ochs, 1996). To understand better these "intertwined" processes, we must take into account

the sociocultural context in which the learning is taking place. Based on such a sociocultural perspective, my study was conducted to show how the sociocultural context of a study abroad experience would influence the learners' language and cultural development.

In sum, the study abroad context should impact learners' language development, identity formation, and ways of perceiving others. Importantly, studying abroad may provide learners with opportunities for self-expansion and self-growth.

2.2. Study Abroad and Theories in Second Language Acquisition

There are three main second language theories that can inform how the second language is acquired in a study abroad program.

Schumann's Acculturation Model (1978) was one of the first theories of second language acquisition to show that the environment in which learners interact and the opportunities it creates to use language seem to have a direct influence on the learners' second language acquisition. He claimed that "the degree to which the learners acculturate to the target group will control the degree to which the learners acquire the second language" (p. 85). In other words, the more acculturated the learners become, the more successful their language outcomes will be.

In his model, Schumann (1976, 1978) was attempting to propose a causal model of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) based on a combination of psychological and sociocultural factors (Kinginger, 2009; Ortega, 2009). As elaborated in Schumann's notorious unsuccessful language learner, Alberto, the success or failure of second language learning can be explained by factors that contribute to the distance between the L1 and L2 groups. These factors include the attitude toward the target culture or group,

social status of the individual in relation to the group, and cohesiveness of the group. Bennett (1999) further refined and elaborated a more detailed model of acculturation, providing an appropriate characterization, according to Kinginger (2008) and Ortega (2009), of learners' experiences when studying abroad. One must pass through the "ethnocentrism" stage to reach the stage of "ethnorelativism", to experience a facilitation of Second Language Acquisition.

Because second language acquisition is a very complex process and cannot be explained by static membership relating to target groups, there have been few empirical studies to support Schumann's acculturation model. Several researchers attempted to connect the influence of the social context in which learners are situated to the degree of their Second Language Acquisition (Dufon & Churchill, 2006; Jackson, 2004; Kinginger, 2008). In relation to this acculturation model, one interesting finding can be reported. According to Engle and Engle (2003), a parallel administration of the Test d'Evaluation de Francais (TEF) and Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) showed a strong correlation. An average 37% gain in personal achievable progress in language was matched by a 33 % rise in intercultural development.

The second relevant second language acquisition theory is Long's (1981) Interaction theory. *Interaction* encompasses the sub-concepts of *comprehensible input*, *feedback*, *negotiation for meaning*, and *output process*. Interaction theory provides an explanation of many critical aspects of language learning (Dekeyser, 2007). These cognitive mechanisms are optimally engaged in processing the form/meaning relationship. Interaction provides learners with learning opportunities through language inputs and output (Gass & Varonis, 1994). Interaction is claimed to be necessary but not sufficient,

in that there is no claim that one or more of the processes work better than any of the others (Dekeyser, 2008), but all these processes are differently effective depending on language learners, language learning, and task demands (Ortega, 2009).

Among the sub-processes, involved in Long's interaction theory, negotiation for meaning has received much attention (Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 1998; Pica, 1996). Pica (1996) argued that negotiation occurs to "shift the flow of the conversation to clarify the miscommunication caused by insufficient and faulty linguistic information" (p.67). Long (1998) defined negotiation of meaning as the "process in which, in an effort to communicate, speaker and competent speaker interpret the signal, provoking adjustments to the content, organization and pragmatics, until an appropriate level of understanding is achieved" (p.247). Pica (1996) argued that negotiation facilitates the comprehension of the input. Through the process of rewording, repetition, and segmentation, learners pay more attention to the form/ meaning relationship.

The third theory of second language acquisition relevant to my study is Swain's (1998) modified output theory. Output practice elicits for learners opportunities for L2 production that facilitates L2 acquisition as long as it cognitively affects the noticed gaps in the learners' interlanguage, testing their existing knowledge, reflecting on their production consciously, and processing their syntax. These cognitive processes are expected to be the most beneficial for L2 development (Dekeyser, 2009).

When learners modify their output, significant developmental effects may occur (Dekeyser, 2008; Ortega, 2009). When interlocutors signal that an L2 learner's production was incomprehensible and ill-formed, the learner will reflect on his or her production again. When they are "pushed" to modify their output, L2 learners will

produce more accurate, comprehensible, complex, and appropriate output. The modified output practice will lead to lower reaction time and higher accuracy in L2 learners' production (Dekeyser, 2008).

Among modified output processes, the skill acquisition theory of Anderson (1994) focuses on the proceduralization and automatization of language. Even when learners are surrounded by native speakers and interacting with native speakers, without the "internalized" (Vygotsky, 1978) proceduralization and automatization, the second language may not be effectively acquired.

2.3. Individual differences in achievement outcomes while abroad

Aside from linguistic gains in study abroad programs, recent research on such programs has also begun to focus on individual difference variables, including anxiety, motivation, willingness to communicate, initial L2 proficiency levels at the outset of program, and intercultural sensitivity toward the target culture.

First, motivation can be the most important factor to impact outcomes in a study abroad program. Motivation is usually understood to refer to what initiates L2 learning and to the effort employed to sustain it (Ortega, 2009). In second language acquisition, it is easy to claim that a learner will be successful with proper motivation. According to Gardner (1985), motivation is commonly thought of as an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action. Ellis (1997, p.75) indicated that studies of motivation in second language acquisition have identified various kinds of learner motivation: instrumental, integrative, resultative, and intrinsic. It should be noted that categorization of motivation is not black and white, but rather motivation represents a continuum of orientations (Ortega, 2009). Gardner (2001) believed that the highest and

most facilitative form of motivation is what he called *integrative motivation*. According to Gardner (2001), integrative motivation is an attitude defined as “a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community” (p.5). By contrast, instrumental motivation embraces sociocultural, sociopsychological, and socioeducational issues like belonging to a group, receiving affection, and identifying with a foreign language community. Instrumental orientation deals with the utilitarian use of the language for personal gain, like finding a job or furthering a career. Resultative motivation occurs when learners have experienced success or failure in learning the second language and must face the task of learning the language again. This result can lead learners to become more or less motivated to learn, that is, motivation that may cause second language achievement. However, it is also possible that motivation is a result of learning (Isabelli, 2000). Previous studies (Isabelli, 2000) that examined learners’ behaviors and motivation in the host country and linked it directly to the development of linguistic gains showed that simply studying abroad did not guarantee that learners would become fluent speakers “magically.” Isabelli disproved that going abroad is a chance to learn a language with little work and that one will become a fluent speaker simply because one is surrounded by the target language. Motivation remains one of the important factors influencing the degree of learners’ second language acquisition in study abroad contexts.

In a study abroad teacher training program, participants’ outcomes will vary based on their motivation. The program’s aim is very clear: to develop English teachers’ general English proficiency skills, and to enhance their ability to teach English in English. Since new government regulations initiated in 2008, the teaching of English in

English and general English communicative ability have become very important criteria in evaluations for qualification as an English teacher in Korean society. Thus, most of the participants in a study abroad teacher training program have goals to improve and develop further their English communicative skills and ability to teach English in English. Their motivation is also closely related to utilitarian reasons including getting promoted, getting credits, or getting a certificate “TEE A”. However, it is likely that their initial external motivation can change over time to more intrinsic reasons.

According to Dornyei and Otto (1986), motivation is not static but changes over time. They proposed a Process Model of L2 motivation in relation to specific contexts, activities, and situations. The participants of my research, namely, in-service EFL teachers motivation seemed to be instrumental at the beginning of the course. However, their motivation seemed to change over time as they advanced in the program and as they begin to have more positive attitude toward the target contact. Thus, motivation can move from utilitarian motivation to more intrinsic or integrative motivation, which makes them learn more intrinsically and come closer to the target language community. Based on my previous research, there were many cases of learners whose motivation changed over time from instrumental to integrative based on focus group interviews and post survey results. On the other hand, participants whose motivation was instrumental and never changed were not as interested in joining extra-curricular activities including social gatherings with native speakers and intercultural meetings. Their communicative and linguistic gains were not significant when compared with the gains of participants whose motivation was integrative. In order to change the participants’ motivation from

utilitarian to integrative, instructors can help them develop their personal goals and make connections with people of the new community (Horwitz, 2008).

The second individual difference variable that may impact the learning in a study abroad program is the participants' affect such as anxiety. Learning and using a foreign language pose a threat to one's ego (Ortega, 2009), making people vulnerable – particularly grown-ups who are accustomed to function perfectly well in their own language. This is particularly true of individuals of professional and expert status who may feel quite anxious when they learn and speak a foreign language. Some researchers have asked where this anxiety originated. Recent studies have emphasized the importance of self-perception and one's self-concept. According to Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999), anxiety levels were associated with a low sense of self-worth and low perception of one's own general academic ability. For people who may have low self-esteem, feeling more vulnerable and anxious during L2 learning may be particularly intense. If the vulnerability is unmanageable and anxiety arises, it will contribute to these learners' poor performance in contexts in which they feel evaluated and anticipate failure.

Counterproductive beliefs about language learning can also contribute to foreign language anxiety in a different way. Such beliefs can lead to high levels of disappointment and an intense sense of failure (Horwitz, 1998). However, some degree of tension can help individuals invest extra effort and push themselves to perform better. This is regarded as facilitative anxiety. As MacItyre and Gardener (1994) stated, anxiety feelings reach debilitating levels only when anxious students engage in negative thoughts that detract from concentration and mental effort that should normally be invested in the foreign language learning task .

According to my previous research, some participants in a study abroad teacher training program had usually high levels of anxiety. Particularly, a few experienced teachers who were respected as being “savvy” had extremely high levels of anxiety. Their anxiety was associated not with low-self esteem or low self-perception but with a low sense of general English communicative ability, especially, speaking skills. Even though their English literacy skills were quite high, they had not learned how to speak English well. So they did not speak as well as younger English teachers and evaluated their communicative English skills as not as good as those of relatively younger English teachers. Thus, when needing to speak English in front of younger peer teachers, their speaking anxiety levels were extremely high, impacting their performance negatively.

In general, Korean teachers of English are proud of themselves in terms of their academic English literacy skills because they had to pass the teacher qualifying exam a very competitive test. Interestingly, the majority of them have never been to English speaking countries. Their experiences using English and communicating with native speakers in authentic contexts have been few. At the initial stage of the program, whenever they encounter miscommunication (communicative breakdown) and misunderstandings, they feel very anxious and frustrated because they had thought their English was very advanced but in reality, it was not. The degree of anxiety, combined with personality factors in dealing with these difficulties, often predicts who will be a successful language learner. To reduce teachers’ foreign language anxiety and maximize the effect of the study abroad program on their language gains, a workshop about how to reduce their anxiety may be especially helpful.

The third individual difference variable is learners' initial level of foreign language proficiency. This factor is supported by previous studies (Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsburg, 1995; Cubillos, Chieffo, & Fan, 2008; Shardakova, 2004). Learners who have high levels of language proficiency can have more chance to communicate with native speakers. They typically extend their conversation, leading to better foreign language acquisition. Conversely, learners who have a low level of foreign language proficiency take fewer chances to carry on communication with native speakers. Their interactions with native speakers is limited to surface levels and formulaic language use, such as "Hi, how are you?" Additionally, they may miss many chances to negotiate for meaning. So their language gain may be relatively less satisfactory than that of learners with higher proficiency.

In summary, there are several individual difference variables that can impact the effect of a study abroad program including motivation, anxiety, willingness to communicate, and initial foreign language proficiency level.

2.4. Language development while abroad

Reflecting the predominant interest in second language acquisition, the previous research on study abroad effects has focused on what is acquired by the learners. The majority of these studies have concentrated on gains in oral fluency. However, recently, the focus has expanded from oral fluency to literacy. The popular assumption of a study abroad program is that such an experience can lead to second language development. However, results of previous research over the past 10 years have not been consistently positive. These inconsistent results are attributed to various critical factors that affect achievement outcomes. In addition, some outcome measurement instruments were not

reliable and had several problems. Although the previous research supports the most popularly held beliefs about study abroad programs in some respects, it also calls for these assumptions to be qualified.

First, many previous studies of language acquisition as a result of study abroad experiences have focused on speaking. Carlson et al. (1991) reported substantial effects of a study abroad on speaking proficiency with an average progress from intermediate+ to advanced+ on ACTFL scales. However, these results came only from a sample of 20 learners from a much larger study and for learners who had usually spent a year or more abroad. Yager (1998) also documented that 22 out of 30 students in his study abroad program improved significantly. Several studies provided a more detailed qualitative assessment of progress in speaking skills. Allen (2002) found large and comparable effect size for fluency, comprehensibility, and amount of communication after six weeks abroad. David (1996), using self-assessment only found great progress in colloquial spoken Russian. Segalowitz and Freed (2004) found a significant difference for rate of speech and also for length of longest turn, length of longest fluent run, and length of filler-free runs. Juan-Garau and Vidal-Perez (2007) reported that a study abroad group produced fewer errors and made longer turns.

Second, research on the acquisition of listening skills has been scarce. However, some studies (Allen, 2002; Kinginger, 2009) have found that study abroad students made improvements in listening comprehension. Tanaka and Ellis (2003) documented minor gains on the listening component of TOEFL taken by Japanese learners studying in the United States. Investigating the development of listening comprehension in France, Allen (2002) documented a significant improvement based on a test of 14 listening skills. In a

self-assessment questionnaire on listening, learners claimed that they made significant gains in listening, but felt more success in completing speaking tests. Cubillos, Chieffo, and Fan (2009) investigated the impact of a five-week intermediate Spanish course on the listening comprehension ability of 48 participants in short-term study abroad programs, and compared these groups with 92 peers enrolled in a similar course at home. Although both on campus and study abroad groups experienced similar gains in listening comprehension, there were significant differences in the way they approached listening tasks: the study abroad groups applied primarily top-down and social listening strategies whereas at-home students favored bottom-up processing. Higher proficiency students in the study abroad groups gained significantly more, and the study abroad groups achieved higher levels of confidence and self-perceived ability.

Third, most studies that have investigated progress in reading while abroad are multiple-skill studies (Dekeyser, 2007). One ground breaking study by Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsburg (1995) documented that students of Russian showed significant gains in reading ability while abroad and also that reading proficiency was an important predictor of gain in two other domains, speaking and listening. Dewey (2004) reported exclusively on reading development from a study experience. Comparing American students of Japanese in Japan and at home, he found no difference on a vocabulary test or free recall measures, but self-assessment showed more confidence in the study abroad group, and think-aloud protocols showed more monitoring for this group. Adding further evidence to Dewey's observation on reader confidence, Kline (1998) reported that over the course of a year in France, students gained greater independence in reading texts, learned to look for a deeper meaning, and began to discuss reading materials with their host families. As

noted previously, American participants in Kinginger's (2008) study reported significantly higher scores on the reading components of the Test de Francais International after their sojourn in France. Hayden (1998) conducted a study of reading development in Chinese by European and North American students on a semester-long program in Beijing, using a computer-adaptive test for reading Chinese based on ACTFL guidelines. Hayden reported that 14 out of 21 participants earned higher scores in vocabulary, reading, and grammar. In addition, Iwasaki (2007) documented impressive gains on the ETS proficiency test (character/vocabulary, reading/Grammar) for four American students after a year in Japan. All of these results show that study abroad can have a positive impact on language skills.

Fourth, research on the effect of study abroad periods on learners' linguistic progress has tended to focus on oral skills, and few study abroad programs have focused on learners' development in writing while abroad. Very few studies exist that looked at only this skill in a study abroad program. A recent example is Freed, So, and Lazar (2003)'s study. Contrary to what was reported for oral fluency in Freed (1995), no significant progress in written fluency during a semester abroad was found. The most recent research about writing gains comes from Vidal-Perez and Juan- Garau's study (2009). The subjects in their research were 37 advanced level non-native university students of English on a study abroad program. Written compositions were analyzed for fluency, accuracy, and complexity gains after the study abroad. Participants were allowed 30 minutes to write on the following topic: "Someone who goes to another country should adopt the ways of his/her new country." Sasaki (2005, 2007) examined the effect of study abroad experiences on EFL writers using multiple data analysis. Her

study was a comparison of the changes in English writing behaviors of seven Japanese university students who spent four to nine months in English speaking countries with those of six counterparts majoring in British and American studies studying in Japan. After a year of observation period, (a) both groups improved their general English proficiency, (b) only those in the study abroad group improved their writing ability and fluency, (c) the study abroad group made more local plans while writing, (d) at the end of the study, both groups translated their ideas into L2 as often as they did at the beginning of the study, (e) only the study abroad group became more motivated to write their L2 composition better. In Sasaki's second (2007) study, two of the seven study abroad participants did not improve their writing quality scores. As Sasaki interpreted the findings, a broader lens may be required in order to understand these findings. Further studies should be focused on the social roles of reading and writing competence, the literacy activities of students, when abroad, and the significance of literacy in students' lives.

Fifth, studies that compared learning at home and abroad have found little to indicate that study abroad context is more advantageous for the acquisition of grammar. Loncope (2003) reported that learners of English made gains in fluency but not necessarily in grammatical accuracy or syntactic complexity during their time abroad. Torres (2003) found that the study abroad context did not seem to be more advantageous than the at-home context as far as the acquisition of grammar was concerned. However, the study abroad learners had an advantage over the at-home group in terms of discourse and pragmatics and were able to use language more effectively.

In summary, from this review of the previous research, some recommendation can be made. There have been few studies to investigate how the linguistic gains, social contact with the target language groups, learner affect, and the participants' identity are connected in study abroad program. To interpret well how and what have been gained by the learners, further studies should be conducted using qualitative and quantitative methods.

2.5. Language Development Measures

To investigate to what extent the participants in study abroad programs develop their language abilities, researchers have tried to measure and evaluate the participants' language gains using trustworthy outcome measures. However, the results were not always consistent and very complex. The skills that students have acquired abroad may be overestimated and underestimated, depending on what and how was measured. In this section, I review the research on several measures of language skills.

2.5.1. Oral Proficiency Interview

For oral fluency, the OPI has frequently been used across several target languages.

Segalowitz et al. (2004) compared study abroad groups and at home groups in terms of oral fluency gains on the OPI. The two main variables measuring oral fluency were mean length of utterances without filled pauses and mean length of utterances without silent pauses. Segalowitz reported that most undergraduate students showed significant but modest gains especially compared to students in the home contexts. However, there were non-significant gains on oral complexity and oral formulaic expressions and slight gains in oral grammatical abilities and lexical errors.

Juan-Garau and Vidal-Perez (2007) focused on the oral performance of participants in role-play and narrative tasks, measuring a variety of factors including fluency (words per clause or sentence), accuracy (grammatical and lexical errors), complexity (clauses per sentence and dependent clauses per clause), and rate of formula use. Their findings generally showed that following a period abroad, students increased their lexical and formulaic repertoires, made fewer errors, and used more and longer clauses. More importantly, many of these gains were retained after a period without instruction, suggesting that study abroad can have a durable impact on students' fluency.

Table 2.1 presents a summary of how participants' language proficiency development was measured in a study abroad program.

Table 2.1. Overview of the Assessment of Proficiency Development

Study	Origin	Destination	Length	# of Participants	Instrument
Freed (1990)	US	France	6 weeks	40	OPI
Milleret (1996)	US	Brazil	1 summer	11	OPI
Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsburg(1995)	US	Russia	1 semester	658	OPI
Yager (1998)	US	France	5 weeks		OPI
Allen & Herron(2003)	US	France	6 weeks	25	Picture description & OPI, role play
Tschirner(2007)	US	Germany	4 weeks	15	OPI

The limitations of OPI

According to Freed (1990), OPI has been criticized:

The OPI which utilizes one global holistic score for various aspects of language use is not sufficiently refined to capture growth in oral skills, particularly six-week period. Except for students at the very beginning level, there was little variation in OPI scores. Future studies will have to utilize more finely-tuned

analyses; those which will reveal, with specificity, development in students' lexical breadth, syntactic complexity, stylistic sensitivity, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence, and cohesion and coherence in language use. (p. 475).

In addition to Freed's (1990) criticism of the OPI, Milleret (2004) pointed out that the OPI is not sensitive to short-term changes, particularly at the upper levels. The insensitivity of the scale left Milleret unable to claim that advanced level learners, those who are reputed to profit most from study abroad, had developed their competence in a study abroad program (Kinging, 2009).

2.5.2. Listening assessment

The investigation of listening comprehension is limited to five recent studies, most of which have gathered the data via standardized tests.

Tanaka and Ellis (2003) used the listening component of the TOEFL taken by Japanese learners studying in the United States. Allen (2002) used a 14-item listening skills test in a six-week summer program in France and a self-assessment questionnaire on listening task. Another recent study (Chieffo, Cubillos, & Fan, 2009) assessed the comprehension of the listening portion of the College Board Spanish Advanced Placement Test by groups in Spain and Costa Rica. This instrument was selected due to its thorough validation, and because it provided a practical and reliable standardized measure of comprehension. The test consisted of 30 multiple choice items divided into three parts; dialogue (10 questions), short narratives (7 questions), and long narratives (13 questions). Students were asked to listen to a recording and then answer questions. The length of the examination was approximately 30 minutes. Chieffo et al. were also interested in learners' strategy uses. They assessed the use of strategies during the listening task using a metacognitive strategy questionnaire (MSLQ) to elicit students'

reported self-perception of their listening comprehension strategies. The rationale for the research on strategy use was that the strategies the more proficient learners use would be different from the strategies the less proficient learners use. Later, Cubillos, Chieffo and Fan (2008) used pre- and post- treatment surveys to ask learners to self-assess their Spanish skills, consisting of 10 questions aimed at eliciting students' self-perceived linguistic competence, both before and after the course.

Table 2.2 shows a summary of how participants' listening comprehension abilities have been measured in previous studies.

Table 2.2. Overview of Assessment of Listening Comprehension

Study	Origin	Destination	Length	Participants	Instrument
Huebner (1991)	US	Japan	9 weeks	12 abroad, 12 domestic immersion	ETS Japanese Proficiency test
Allen & Herron (2003)	US	France	6 weeks	25	French Listening Proficiency test
Tanaka & Ellis (2003)	Japan	US	15 weeks	166	TOEFL
Cubillos, Chieffo & Fan (2007)	US	Spain Costa Rica	5 weeks	48 abroad 92 at home	Spanish Advanced Placement Test MSQ (Metacognitive Strategy Questionnaire)
Kinginger (2008)	US	France	1 semester	23	Test de Francais International

The limitations of standardized multiple choice test

Kinginger (2009) criticized using multiple choice tests to assess the development of participants' listening skills.

Listening comprehension research presents issues of ecological validity. The construct of listening comprehension is operationalized via multiple choice tests, and all of these are standardized test to assess students' ability to carry out academic tasks using standard language normally characterized by formal register. It is still questionable whether these tests truly represent the language that students have learned (Kinging, 2009, p.146).

2.5.3. Literacy skills measurement (Reading and Writing)

Competence in reading and writing is remarkably under-represented in the applied linguistics literature related to study abroad (Kinging, 2009). Most contemporary scholars claim that learning to read and write abroad not only test students' linguistic and pragmatic skills but also students' abilities to negotiate new academic cultures and to adapt to new forms of literacy.

2.5.3.1. Reading

Four studies have focused on assessment of reading proficiency. All of these show that studying abroad has a positive impact on reading comprehension skills. Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsburg (1995) used the Educational Testing Service reading exam. Hayden (1998) used a computer-adaptive test for reading Chinese. Dewey (2004) used free-recall protocols, vocabulary knowledge, and self- assessment. Kinginger (2008) used the "Test de Francais International."

2.5.3.2. Writing

Some studies (Freed, So, & Lazar, 2003; Sasaki, 2005, 2008; Vidal-Perez & Juan-Garau, 2009) have focused on investigating the effect of study abroad on written performance. Comparing quantitative and qualitative assessments of writing ability, Sasaki (2005) showed that both study abroad and at-home groups developed the quality

of their argumentative compositions and their fluency as writers measured by the total number of words and words per minute. Sasaki (2007) once again compared students abroad with their peers at home. She measured general proficiency, essay quality (content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics), and fluency (words written and words per minute). Additionally, she collected retrospective accounts of the writing process through stimulated recall based on video tapes of the students while they composed and interviewed the students about changes in their writing strategies.

Perez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2009) analyzed the written composition of study abroad learners for fluency, accuracy, and complexity gains. All participants were allowed 30 minutes to write on the following topic: “Someone who moves to a foreign country should always adopt the customs and way of life of his/her new country.” Four main domains have been identified: Fluency, accuracy, grammatical and lexical complexity. These authors identified the value of measure based on the clause. Words per clause and dependent clause per clause were counted for fluency. Measuring accuracy can be more problematic than measuring fluency or complexity because deciding what counts as error can be subjective. Errors were broadly classified as grammatical, lexical, and pragmatics.

Table 2.3 shows a summary of how participants’ reading and writing development were measured in previous study abroad research.

Table 2.3 Overview of the Assessment of reading and writing

Study	Origin	Destination	Length	Participants	Instrument
Huebner (1995)	US	Japan	9 weeks	12 abroad, 12 domestic immersion	ETS Japanese Proficiency test
Dewey (2004)	US	Japan	11 weeks	15 abroad 15 domestic immersion	Free-recall protocols, Vocabulary knowledge, self- assessment
Sasaki (2004, 2007)	Japan	Canada or US	2 to 8 months	7 abroad 6 at home	English composition quality/ fluency
Kinginger (2008)	US	France	1 semester	23	Test of Francais International

2.5.4. Pragmatics

For pragmatic skill measurement, Taguchi (2008) measured 44 college students in a U.S. institution three times over a four month period. These measures included (a) pragmatic listening test that measured the ability to comprehend implied speaker's intentions (b) the lexical access test that measured ability to make speedy semantic decisions, and (c) the language contact survey that examined the amount of time learners spent in the L2 outside of the class. The learners' pragmatic comprehension was analyzed for accuracy and comprehension speed (the average time taken to answer items correctly). For the lexical access test, this study used a computerized word recognition task. Also, a short form of the Modern Language Aptitude test, demographic and program data along with detailed information about the language-learning histories of the participants were collected.

Although American researchers tend to favor the ACTFL guidelines and an emphasis on speaking abilities in assessing general language proficiency, the European

language proficiency survey and a subsequent study relied on a holistic instrument known as a C-test. The C- test is assumed to measure overall language ability by imitating the conditions under which expert language users reconstitute meaning based on incomplete texts. The C-test is created by deleting parts of words from a series of authentic texts and asking test takers to reconstruct the original messages. Although it has no oral components, the C-test has been claimed to provide a reliable and efficient test of proficiency (Coleman, Rees, & Klapper, 2007).

A number of researchers have assessed the abilities of study abroad participants to manipulate speech acts. Discourse Completion Task (DCP) was used for assessing the participants' speech act.

Shardakova's (2005) research investigated the Russian-language apologies by US-based students using DCT (discourse completion task). The author claimed that apologies are created in accordance with different perceptions between America and Russia. In other words, learning to apologize in Russian is more than merely matching the forms used by natives; it requires the ability to "see things from the point of view of a Russian" (Shardakova, 2005, p.445). Furthermore, he claimed that only a combination of high proficiency and exposure to Russian culture provided students the option of behaving in a native-like manner (Kinging, 2009).

Matsumura (2001) showed that Japanese university students in Canada became better able than their peers at home to judge the appropriateness of advice given to people of equal or lower status. He (2007) explored the aftereffects of study abroad on pragmatic competence using advice/multiple choice questionnaire.

Researchers interested in the influence of communicative setting for students' language learning have typically used ethnography and diary studies. Additionally, research on language socialization and identity has usually taken an ethnographic approach.

In summary, many researchers have tried to measure the outcomes of study abroad programs reliably and objectively. However, the amount of data they collected and the ways of measuring the outcomes have varied. Sometimes, the skills that learners gained were overestimated, other times underestimated. Future researchers should try to overcome the limitations of the outcome measurements in previous studies in order to evaluate more properly the effect of the study abroad on language gains.

2.6 Intercultural Development

Recently, study abroad programs have gained much interest from administrators and educators. Many U.S. universities have many exchange undergraduate students who come to the United States to take courses. Also, every year, many U.S. undergraduate students apply for study abroad programs and want to go abroad to improve their language skills and learn more about the target culture. The main purposes for such study abroad programs are to increase participants' target language skills, global knowledge, and their intercultural competences so that they can communicate well with people from other countries and be aware of the cultural differences (Byram, 1999).

According to Schumann (1978), the L2 learners' attitude toward the target culture is a very critical factor in determining the success of the second or target language acquisition. For example, someone who has a positive attitude toward the target culture is

willing to talk with local individuals in that target culture and learn the target language more eagerly. Someone with a negative attitude toward the target culture may not be willing to learn the target language and may even not want to interact with the people in that country or culture. According to Eagle and Eagle (1999), there is a high relationship between intercultural sensitivity and second language acquisition. Therefore, to facilitate participants' second or target language acquisition, educators or program coordinators need to know something about participants' attitudes toward the target culture and how sensitive the participants are toward the target culture. After testing participants' intercultural sensitivity or competence, the educators or program facilitators can redesign the study abroad program to maximize its effects, particularly on the participants' linguistic and intercultural competencies. However, the importance of intercultural competence or sensitivity has not received as much attention in the second language acquisition field. What is worse, there is no well-developed scale or test for assessing and diagnosing intercultural competence.

2.6.1 Operational Definition of the Construct

Bennett (1986) created the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. Using a grounded theory approach, Bennett applied concepts from cybernetic constructivism to his observation of intercultural adaptation and identified six orientations that people seem to move through in their acquisition of intercultural competence. The underlying assumption of the model is that as one's experience of cultural difference becomes more complex and sophisticated, one's personal competence in intercultural relations increase.

Bennett's own Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) can be broken down into six stages of developmental evolution, from an ethnocentric to an

ethnorelative world view. These six stages are labeled Denial, Defense, Minimization, Acceptance, Adaptation, and Integration, and were defined by Bennett (1993) as follows:

1. *Denial*

Learners are unable or unwilling to recognize cultural differences, possess a neutral disinterest about cultural differences and or unconsciously avoid people from other groups, strongly maintain traditional worldviews, and express benign stereotypes and /or superficial statements of tolerance.

2. *Defense*

Learners negatively evaluate cultural differences (the greater the difference, the more negative the evaluation); polarize differences into “us” and “them,” accompanied by overt negative stereotyping; and manifest an attitude of superiority toward “underdeveloped” cultures.

3. *Acceptance*

Learners recognize and appreciate cultural differences in behavior and values, accept cultural differences as viable alternative solutions to the organization of human existence, begin to interpret phenomena within a context, and consciously elaborate categories of difference.

4. *Adaptation*

Learners develop skills that enable intercultural communication, use empathy, and shift cultural frame of reference to understand and be understood across cultural boundaries (Bennett, 1993, p.114).

In summary, my research was grounded in sociocultural theory. I attempted to investigate the effects of a study abroad program on Korean teachers of English, on their second language gains, their motivation, and their intercultural sensitivity development, using some of my tools, a program evaluation approach. In addition, this research was conducted by using both quantitative and qualitative methods to examine what kind of language learning was happening and how the participants were changing affectively in a study abroad context.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter is divided into two large sections. First, I present the information about the program I investigated by describing program objectives, inputs, constraints, and the first and the second order outcomes one might expect from the program within the social and political context in which the program occurred. In this description, I am using the techniques of program modeling, identifying planned activities and flow of transactions, even though I was not conducting an official program evaluation as I am not a certified program evaluator nor was I functioning in that role. In the second section, I describe the study by which I investigated the program in order to respond to my research questions.

3.1. Overview of the Study Abroad Teacher Training Program

In program evaluation, a first step one takes is *program decomposition*. The purpose of decomposing a program is to indicate explicitly the activities that will occur during students' progression through the program (Borich, 2009, course packet). Program decomposition allows members of the program, such as administrators, instructors, participants, parents, and students to understand the questions and concerns that may represent conflicting or compatible interests. The conceptual representation of the program can be demonstrated through a series of diagrams based on Borich and Jemelka (1982). In the first level diagram (see Figure 1), a box represents the main activity of this Study Abroad Teacher Training Program (SATTP) – to develop English

teachers' communicative competence and teaching English in English (TEE) ability, and to help Korean teachers of English achieve a TEE certificate that will certify them as capable to teach English in English.

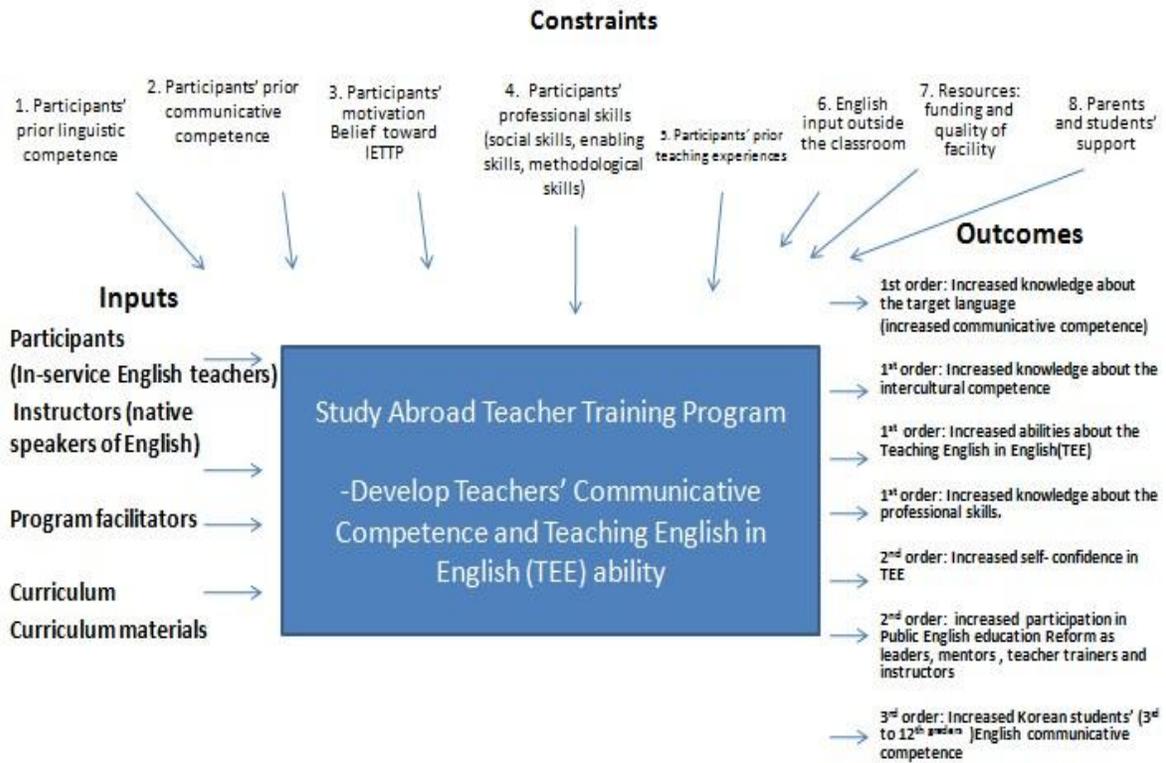
There are two rules used in modeling a program. Prior to decomposition, the inputs, constraints, transactions, and outputs of the program should be defined and identified. According to Borich and Jemelka (1982), inputs are aspects used by the activity: participants (in-service teachers) being changed by the program as well as staff, facilities, and materials required by the program. Constraints are aspects that moderate or influence the activity or its outcome that can be measured in degrees on a continuum. Funding, opportunity for practice, organizational climate, and skill level of trainers, these represent system constraints. Feedback on performance and participants' prior attainments can be program constraints. The outcomes are behaviors resulting from the activity. Students with a certain skill level can be an outcome. Outcomes need to be realistic and representative. First order outcomes, which are closer to the program, should be used to indicate the program's effectiveness. Second- or third-order outcomes are used to indicate the overall direction of a program. Transaction is a planned unit of program activity for which there is a measurable outcome. Enabling outcomes are behaviors produced by a transaction that are prerequisite to subsequent transactions and the attainment of terminal outcomes. Terminal outcomes are behaviors that the program participant is expected to exhibit at the completion of all program transactions (Borich, 2009, course packet).

The inputs, constraints, and outcome designations reveal how activities (transactions) within a program are tied together (Borich, 2009).

As shown in Figure 4.1, through the decomposition of the program, I analyzed the study abroad program to identify its structure, graphically outlining the salient characteristics of the program (Han & McGee, 2003).

Figure 3.1. Overview of study abroad teacher training program

Figure 1 : Overview of **Study Abroad Teacher Training Program**
(1st level diagram)



The inputs of this program were participants, instructors, program facilitators, and curriculum materials. There were several constraints on the program. The primary constraint was the participants' initial English proficiency level at the beginning of the program. The other constraints were the participants' motivation, foreign language

anxiety, beliefs about this study abroad teacher training program (SATTP), and foreign language input outside of the classroom. The quality and quantity of the language contact with native speakers were another important constraint. The participants' personality and their intercultural sensitivity and available resources may have been constraints as well.

The first order outcomes were participants' (1) increased English communicative competence, (2) increased intercultural competence, (3) increased "Teaching English in English," and (4) increased knowledge about professional skills such as presentation skills and computer-literacy skills. The second order outcomes were participants' (1) increased self-confidence in TEE, and (2) increased participation in public English education reform movements as leaders, teacher trainers, mentors, and instructors. Ultimately, as a desired outcome, the third-order outcome would be indicated by an increase in Korean secondary school students' English communicative competence if taught by teachers who had had this study abroad experience.

The four-week program was designed to address the needs of Korean teachers of English. The program provided the following: (1) instruction on the most current communicative techniques and strategies, (2) the use of technology for supplementing language, (3) the development of lessons and curriculum with special attention to the actual curriculum the teachers needed to use in their home country, (4) English language instruction, and (5) an orientation to aspects of United States culture.

The transactions (activities) in this program were as follows: (1) teaching communicative language skills, (2) teaching methodologies and practicing skills to TEE, (3) developing professional skills, (4) practicing teaching practicum in a real classroom, and (5) participating in a project conference.

3.1.1 Program Evaluation

In this section, I explain some natural language questions that stakeholders could have asked and variables that would need to be measured. Stakeholders are individuals or groups and institutions who affect or are affected by a program's actions, decisions, and performance (Borich, 2009, Course packet). Weiss (1983) defined stakeholders as 1) group members affected by the program, and 2) those who make decisions about a program. Korean teachers of English who were participating in this study abroad teacher training program and native speakers of English instructors were identified as the primary stakeholders. Additionally, administrators, directors, and program sponsors of this program were classified as stakeholders as well.

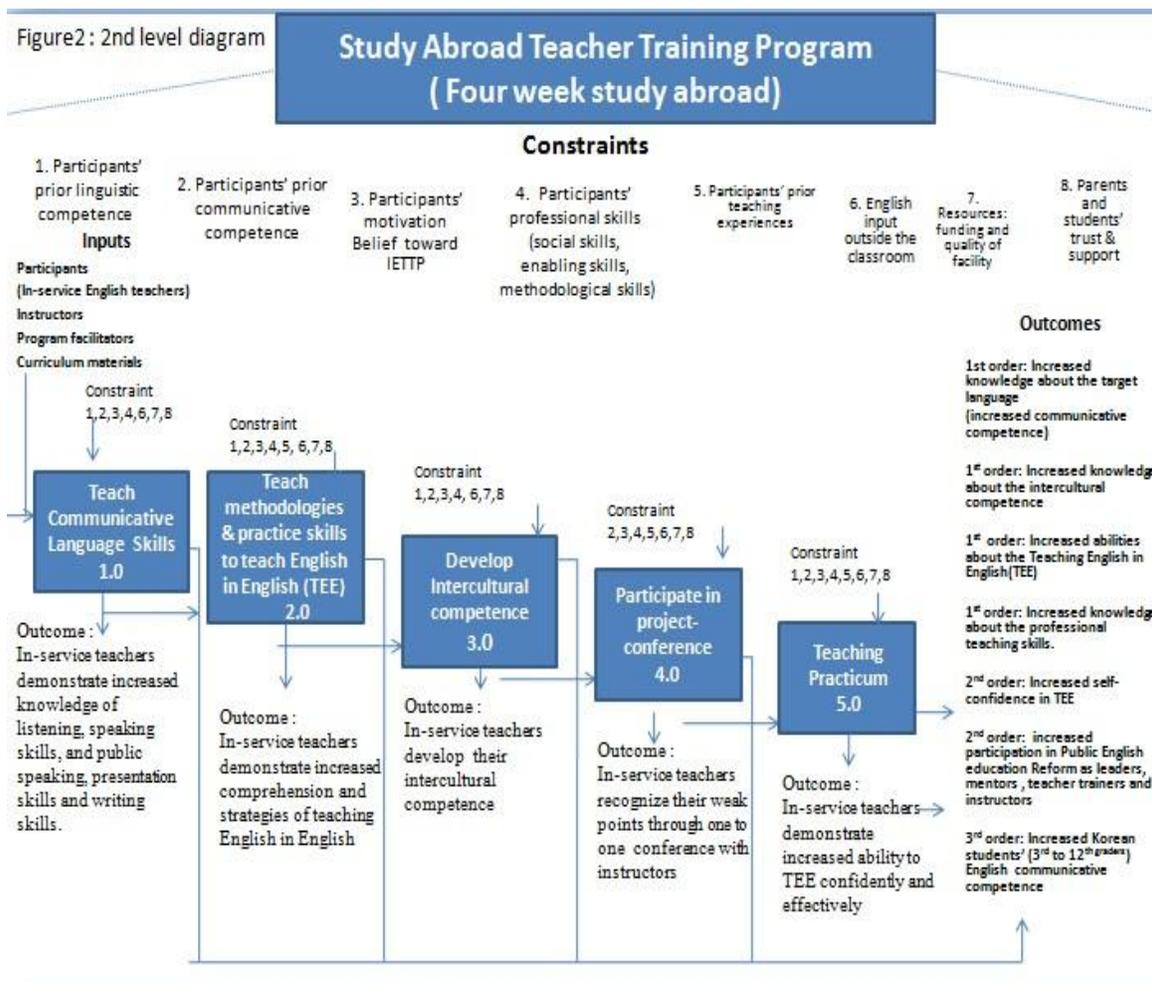
Stakeholders raise a series of natural language questions about the overall cost and the effectiveness of the program (Borich, 2009). First, Korean teachers can ask these natural language questions, "Will this program help me improve my English communicative competence?" Variables to be measured to answer the question would be overall English proficiency, oral and written fluency, accuracy, and complexity. The instruments to measure the above variables can be formal standardized tests such as TEPS or TOEFL, students' daily entry journals for assessing their writing performance, and oral interviews for assessing their oral fluency and accuracy. For analyzing the data, descriptive analysis was used and the participants' initial language proficiency scores (the entrance test scores) and posttest scores (the exit scores) were compared.

The second natural language question was, "Will the program help me improve my teaching English in English (TEE) ability?" A measure that could be used to answer this question was classroom management skills in English. Qualitative analysis was used

to examine the participants' TEE (Teaching English in English) skill improvement. The third natural language question can be "After completing this program, can I apply what I've learned into my classroom?" A variable that could measure this question is the ability of participants to communicate effectively in English. Measurement instrument I used was a self-assessment of English skills. A descriptive analysis of the results of these self assessments was conducted to understand the applicability of the study abroad English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher training program. In addition, the data elicited from the focus group interview were used to group the common themes or affinities, and identify the relationship among the affinities.

The development of the participants' Teaching English in English (TEE) ability was one of the most important objectives in the study abroad teacher training program. The Ministry of Education in Korea has had the goal of strengthening the Korean Public English education by training Korean English teachers to develop their communicative competence and TEE ability. Approximately 10,000 U.S. dollars per participant was invested in this study abroad teacher training program, with expectation that Korean public English education would be strengthened by further training of English teachers. An evaluation of this program could contribute to meet social and parental needs, maximize cost effectiveness of the program, and make better decisions in the future about Korean public education.

Figure 3.2 Program decomposition of this study abroad teacher training program



3.2. The Main Research

In this section, I explain the design of my study and the use of qualitative and quantitative methodologies, including the strengths and weaknesses and purposes of each methodological approach. In addition, I specify the instruments and scales that were used in my outcome measurement.

Within the context of study abroad programs, typical forms of educational research and program evaluation consist of experimental design (pre and post) and quantitative dependent measures of linguistic attainment (Dufon & Churchill, 2006).

This product-oriented approach tends to overlook the process of language and cultural learning and how these are related to broader cultural contexts. Quantitative measures simply cannot capture many of the complexities of language development and learning. However, a mixed-method, process-oriented approach to research and program evaluation that employs both qualitative and quantitative modes of data collection, offers an alternative means of investigating the impact of the study abroad experience. Therefore, in my research, I used a mixed method approach and included a small scale longitudinal ethnographic case study that investigated the experiences and perspectives of participants in the program.

The primary goal of the qualitative case study was to develop a deeper understanding of the behavioral practices and beliefs held by individuals in the program, a particular group of people at a particular time (Dufon & Churchill, 2006). Thus, I collected their primary data by becoming immersed in the culture through observing and participating in the group's activities. Besides participant observation, I relied on interviewing and informal conversations to gather data from participants in the cultural scene under study. I also made use of qualitative measures such as surveys. Through naturalistic, systematic observation and interaction with informants, I built up a "thick and rich description" of culture and aspects of culture from an "emic" perspective. In the process of the ethnography, I hoped to generate or build theories of culture or explanations of how people think, believe, and behave that are situated in local time and space (Dufon & Churchill, 2006).

The qualitative methods used in this study included interviews, surveys, and case studies. The major strength of the interview was that it could help establish context and

perspective independent of preconceived notions implicit in the study design (Borich, 2009). The major weakness of the interview was that it could be susceptible to bias with respect to who was interviewed and what the interviewer wanted to hear. The surveys were scales and questionnaires that attempted to record perceptions, attitudes, and opinions. These provided all respondents with the same framework and set of stimuli from which to respond. The weakness was that they limited participant responses to preconceived categories and questions (Borich, 2009). Case study was an in-depth, small N observation, and interview and document review reported in a narrative format. My aim was to provide a longitudinal and in-depth description of a program that could be both informative and interesting. However, I acknowledge that it could be biased and limited in the information selected for inclusion (Dufon & Churchill, 2006). The major strength of the structured interview was that it could control the response stimuli and format across interviewees. However, it could also prevent or discourage unanticipated comments from emerging (Borich, 2009). On the other hand, the unstructured interview was a way of allowing the interviewee to provide the structure and format for the interview, eliciting spontaneous and insightful descriptions of a program, but also producing disconnected or unorganized data that might be tangential to the program evaluation (Borich, 2009).

I and my two research assistants (undergraduates who volunteered to help me) used running notes and field experience log or diary entries for to record observation data. We interviewed some participants once per week on a volunteer basis, and interviews were transcribed every week. For qualitative research, the participants' journals, reflection papers, and interviews were collected. The interviews were semi-

structured to include certain preselected themes. In the initial interview, participants were asked about their prior travel and language learning experiences, their reasons for applying for the study abroad program, and their expectations about the United States. Midterm interviews elicited a description and evaluation of the experience, including daily routines, questions about social contacts, and comments about studying abroad. In the final interview, the participants were asked to evaluate the experience in its entirety and to comment on the extent to which it matched their initial expectations. They were asked to characterize their English language development and motivation for continued study (Kinging, 2008). In addition, the interviewers asked the participants to comment on their relationships to the experience. For recording in journals, the participants were offered a choice between a paperback composition book and a web-based format in which they would send e-mailed journal entries or they would upload to a website. In their journals, the participants were asked to write a minimum of one entry per week recounting any events they judged relevant to their language learning. Participants were also provided with calendar dairies in which they recorded detailed information about their language use at three specific points during the study abroad.

For formal assessment of the participants' English proficiency, web-based pretest at the beginning of the program and posttest at the end of the program were administered. For speaking, each participant was interviewed by the native English speaking instructors. For writing, they were asked to write an essay on one of several topics for half an hour. Their interview and their essays were assessed by their native English speaking instructors using holistic rubrics. Their interviews were collected three times during the study abroad program, at the beginning of the program, in the middle of

the program, and at the end of the program on a volunteer basis. During the program, I and my two research assistants served as near peer mentors or buddies when the occasion came up.

The interview transcripts were analyzed qualitatively. Additionally, the participants' journals and writing assignments were collected weekly and analyzed to measure how participants had changed their intercultural sensitivity, their affect such as their motivation and anxiety, and their view of themselves as teachers of English.

According to Royse et al. (2001), evaluation researchers have begun to employ ethnographic fieldwork in educational contexts where the primary aim is to understand better the learning processes of participants in a particular program. This approach is especially useful in a small program in which the researcher can gather ethnographic data while developing a close relationship with participants (Royse et al., 2001). Through this approach, I was able to identify subtle aspects of the program that would have been missed by forms of evaluation that would focus exclusively on outcomes. This ethnographic approach to my study helped to provide me with an understanding of how learners develop their language and intercultural competence.

Another significant advantage of this process-oriented evaluation was that the participants were continually encouraged to reflect on their language and cultural learning, including both positive and negative elements (Dufon & Churchill, 2006).

All interview transcripts and the participants' reflection papers were collected, analyzed, and interpreted based on grounded theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1999), particularly using constant comparison method.

Overall, integrating qualitative and quantitative methods allowed me to view the detailed aspects of this program holistically and provide some pedagogical implications for maximizing the effectiveness of study abroad program (Borich & Jamelka, 1982)

3.2.1. Participants

The participants in this research were the 42 Korean EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers, especially Korean teachers of English who came to America to participate in a four-week study abroad teacher training program. They were all from a large province near Seoul, the capital city of Korea. This study abroad teacher training program took place at a large, state-funded university in the southwest United States. To better describe and explain how they developed their language skills in relation to their affect, their identity, and their cultural sensitivity over time, demographic data were collected. For example, the demographic information in the questionnaire considered their prior language learning experiences, their goals for participating in a study abroad program, their prior expectations, the years of teaching experiences, their reasons to apply for this study abroad program instead of domestic program, and their motivation and anxiety. These data, reported in the next chapter, were carefully examined to describe how their language learning development was connected to their individual differences and their affect.

3.2.2 Researcher Bracketing

When I was an undergraduate, I attended a study abroad program for one semester in the U.K. in 1996. After I became an English teacher, I attended various kinds of English teacher training programs abroad and in Seoul. In 2004, I participated in a four-week study abroad in-service teacher training program at SUNY (State University

of New York). In 2006 and 2007, I participated in a four-week in-service domestic teacher training program in Seoul. All the programs were similar in terms of their main purposes and curriculum, including school visits and presentation about Korea culture to their American students, because the main objectives of these teacher-training programs were to increase teachers' English communicative competence and TEE (Teaching English in English) skills.

In addition, in 2002, I was a chaperone for 15 middle school students who participated in a four week study abroad in Boston. I observed their language development and took care of them emotionally and academically throughout the program. In 2003, I participated in an "English Camp," which was a four-week domestic English immersion program for middle school students in Korea. I was an assistant teacher for native English instructors. I stayed for one month, speaking only English with students and instructors. I stayed for 24 hours with my students and instructors for four weeks. I observed the students' linguistic development and took care of them academically and emotionally.

All of my personal experiences as a participant in study abroad programs and in a domestic teacher training program were very helpful in conducting this research. Furthermore, my experiences as an assistant teacher and as a chaperone helped me to investigate the effectiveness of a short-term study abroad program.

3.2.3. Pilot Studies

3.2.3.1. The first pilot study (January to February in 2009)

In 2009, fifty Korean teachers of English attended the same four-week study abroad teacher training program as participants in my main study from January to

February. I collected the participants' pretest and posttest scores of English proficiency measured by the native English speaking instructors. I also had the participants' pre-TEPS (Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University) scores and post-TEPS scores. The test scores included listening, writing, reading, and speaking components. Furthermore, I interviewed a focus group about their anxiety change, motivation change, and self-perceptions. Results showed that the participants improved their proficiency skills slightly and significantly. Through the focus group interviews, I was able to develop some important themes about this study abroad teacher training program. Through this pilot study, I found some interesting emerging themes including the importance of participants' various sources of motivation, their increased awareness of cultural and linguistic differences, and their changed intercultural sensitivity. These themes helped me to develop an interview protocol for my study. However, in this pilot study, I did not have access to the participants from the very beginning, something I was able to rectify for my real study.

3.2.3.2 The second pilot study (July to August in 2009)

From July to August in 2009, 18 pre-service Korean teachers of English participated in a four-week teacher-training program in the same program. In addition, 13 undergraduate Korean students who were majoring in English literature and linguistics participated in a four-week study abroad program simultaneously. I had a focus group interview with eight in-service teachers and asked about their changes in terms of their motivation, anxiety, feelings of nationality and identity, and self-perceptions as a foreign language teacher. Additionally, I collected the participants' pre and post measures on self-assessments of the four language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking,

and an anxiety scale. Furthermore, I collected their reflection papers about their experiences while studying abroad. In the survey, I included their Language Contact Profile, which asked how many hours a day they spent in speaking with native speakers, reading English materials, listening to English songs or TV, and writing in English.

Through this pilot study, the main theme that emerged from the focus group interview was that the participants became more comfortable in the new culture even though they did not have as many chances to interact with local individuals as they would have liked. The participants in this second pilot were mostly pre-service teachers or undergraduate who were majoring in English literature and linguistics. They were not familiar with second language acquisition theories or second or foreign language teaching methodologies. Also, their goals to improve their English proficiency or to have many contacts with local people were not as high as the group in the main study. Even though they were not in-service teachers and their motivation was not as high as the group in my study, some of the pre-service teachers stated that they would become more confident about teaching English in the near future to their future students because they had come to know how language is used and how local people speak in “real” life. Some of the participants seemed to realize the importance of the interrelationship between target language and target culture.

3.2.4. Data Sources

3.2.4.1. Quantitative method

First, to evaluate the effect of the four week study abroad program on the development of participants’ language competence and intercultural sensitivity, the main aims and objectives of this program were considered and measured carefully. The main

objectives of this program can be categorized as follows: the first order outcomes were participants' (1) increased English communicative competence, (2) increased intercultural competence, (3) increased TEE (Teaching English in English) ability, and (4) increased knowledge about professional skills such as presentation skills and computer literacy skills. The two second-order outcomes were participants' (1) increased self-confidence in TEE, and (2) increased participation in public English education reform as leaders, mentors, teacher trainers, and instructors. In my research, I focused on investigating the effects of the program on the participants' linguistic skills, intercultural developments, and their affective responses. I ran MANOVA tests, with follow up ANOVA tests, to examine the significant differences between pretest and posttest scores of each measure. In addition, I was able to interview a few participants who were enrolled and a domestic immersion program to compare their experiences with the findings of my study.

Data sources for the qualitative analysis were participants' interviews, participants' daily entry journals, and their self-assessment questionnaire developed by the National Language Service Corps (NLSC).

3.2.4.1.1. Instrumentation

3.2.4.1.1.1. Formal Language assessment

To measure to what extent the participants had improved their English proficiency, language pretest and the posttest measures were administered via the web for measuring listening, structure, and reading. Speaking and writing skills were assessed by the native English speaking instructors using their holistic rubrics.

According to the director of the program, the web-based test was originally developed by University of Michigan. This test consists of listening, structure, and reading. Table 3.1 below list aspects of what the test included including number of items and amount of time allowed for each section.

Table 3.1. Component of the test for pre- and post-test

Subjects	Time	Number of items
Listening	35 min.	50 items
Structure	45 min.	75 items.
Reading	30 min.	35 items
Total	110 min.	160 items

This institute used the two sets of test developed by the University of Michigan and used both types as pretest and posttest. Both tests had been shown to have the same level of difficulty, so it was appropriate to use both tests to examine to what extent the participants had made progress in terms of their listening, reading, and structure knowledge.

For measuring speaking and writing, well-developed items were chosen from the item pools. The speaking consisted of four interview questions. Writing has one essay form. All the writing and speaking were rated by well-trained raters.

3.2.4.1.1.2. Interview Task to measure oral proficiency

At the beginning of the program, the participants had an oral proficiency interview with a native speaker of English interviewer. Similarly, during the last week of the program, the participants had an oral interview again. Each interview was scored for

fluency, accuracy, and quality using holistic rubrics. The rubrics used to rate the interviews were based on ACTFL Guidelines such as Advanced High, Advanced Low, Intermediate High, Intermediate Low, and Beginner. For improving inter-rater reliability, the interviewers were trained and an in-house proficiency scale, developed before this program and my study, was used.

Pretest and posttest scores were compared to investigate the effects of the study abroad program on the participants' oral proficiency.

3.2.4.1.1.3. Writing Tasks

During the first week of the program, all participants were allowed to choose one of several topics, such as "Someone who moves to a foreign country should always adopt the customs and way of life of his/her new country." They were given 30 minutes to write an essay. Similarly, at the end of the program, they were given new choices of topics. Four main domains were identified, fluency, accuracy, grammatical, and lexical complexity, and rated using rubrics.

3.2.4.1.1.4. Self-Assessments Questionnaire

Participants' self assessment scales were used to assess the four main skills including listening, speaking, writing, and reading. The self-assessment, developed by the National Language Service Corps (NLSC), uses yes-no questions to a list of 88 actions or situations to which a respondent indicates whether he or she can do the stated action. This scale was originally developed by the Interagency Language Roundtable which had also contributed the basic forms of the ACTFL Guidelines.

Speaking has 37 items, listening has 30 items, and reading has 21 items. The participants had filled out the questionnaire at the beginning of the program. Even though

the questionnaires are divided into four linguistic skills, it would be difficult for several of the items to check the “yes” option if participants were not familiar with the cultural context or had enough cultural knowledge associated with the linguistic forms used.

I kept them and returned them to the participants on the last day of the program so that they could reflect on their linguistic skills again by seeing their original responses. Appendix 1 presents the self-assessment questionnaire for each three skills including listening, speaking, and reading. As adult learners as well as English teachers, the participants were able to provide interesting additions as to their perceptions of their strengths and weaknesses on these self-assessment questionnaires.

3.2.4.2. Qualitative sources

For qualitative method, I interviewed and observed them periodically.

3.2.4.2.1. Participants’ Interview Transcription & Reflection paper

The participants’ reflection papers and interview transcripts were analyzed using the constant comparison method that is a part of grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1999), in order to investigate how their affect, cultural knowledge, and their self-perception and self-assessments had changed over the course of a four-week study abroad program. These data were analyzed drawing important themes, from a sociocultural perspective.

I was immersed in this study abroad teacher training program as a friend to the participants, as a colleague to the native English speaking instructors, and as a mentor or a researcher. Through this immersion, I could observe the participants’ linguistic, affective, identity and intercultural changes over the course of the program.

3.2.4.2.2. Interview with instructors and program directors

In addition, I interviewed the native English speaking instructors during and after the program. The interview topics included what they saw as the participants' linguistic development, intercultural knowledge development, their affect, and overall experiences over the course of the program.

Finally, a few participants from a domestic immersion teacher training program in Korea were interviewed and their responses were compared with those of the participants in this study abroad program.

3.3. Data Collection and Procedures

All the data were collected at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the program.

3.3.1. Time Schedule

Once a week the participants had oral interviews about their experiences with American research assistants on a volunteer basis. The oral interviews were recorded in private study rooms located in the university's library, and later transcribed and analyzed. Their daily entry journals and reflection papers about their experiences in study abroad were collected.

Table 3.2. Time Schedule of Data Gathering

Week	Date	Daily Schedules	Quantitative data	Qualitative data
Pre-departure	Dec. 29 th	Orientation in Korea	Self-Assessment Questionnaire	Observation Field note
Week1 (Jan22- Jan 28)	Jan. 22 nd	Participants arrived in U.S.		Observation Observation Field notes
	Jan. 23 rd	Placement test	Web based pretest for reading, listening, and structure Oral interview for speaking Essay for writing	
	Jan 25 th Jan 27 th Jan 28 th	Informal classes Meeting with graduate students	Interview with research assistants	Reflection Journal
Week 2 (Jan. 29- Feb. 4)	Jan 29 th - 30 th	Visiting an American house		Observation Field Notes Reflection Journal Daily entry Journal
	Feb.2 nd Feb.7 th	Field trip Super Bowl party	Second Interview	
Week 3 (Feb.5- Feb.11)	Feb. 9 th Feb.11 th	School Visits Informal classes Field trip	Third Interview	Observation Field Notes Reflection Journal Daily entry Journal
Week 4 (Feb.12- Feb.18)	Feb. 13 th -14 th Feb. 16 th	Informal classes Field Trip	Fourth interview	Observation Field Notes Reflection Journal Daily entry Journal Weekly Journal Reflection Journal
	Feb. 17 th		Post self-assessment, Post web-based test for reading, listening, and structure Oral interviews for post speaking test Essay writing for post writing test	
	Feb.18 th	Leaving the U.S.	Informal interviews at airport	Observation Field notes

3.4. Data Analysis

Two data analysis methods were used in this study respectively.

3.4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

In order to investigate to what extent the participants improved their English proficiency over the course of the program, MANOVA was conducted, with follow-up ANOVA tests. For the self-assessment questionnaires, the items the participants perceived they had become able to do over the course of the program were counted at the end of the program and compared to their first self-assessment responses.

3.4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

For qualitative data analysis, participants' interviews, their reflection papers, their daily entries, weekly journals, and interviews with instructors and program directors in the domestic and study abroad programs collected and analyzed by using a constant comparison method.

Qualitative data analysis progressed in four phases. Phase 1 occurred when I collected the data. As I interviewed participants informally or took part with them in such activities as American house visits, Super-bowl parties, going out to dinner, and having lunch together, I made extensive memos focusing on the impact of their experiences in the study abroad program on their language development, intercultural competence and intercultural sensitivity, their affect, and their views of themselves as foreign language teachers.

In Phase 2, I reorganized all the data I collected chronologically once the participants had returned home. I sorted my notes on my thoughts and what the participants had said. I put the pre and posttest scores of the participants into SPSS data sheets and then ran MANOVAs. I was able to confirm by consultation with the Division of Statistics all the assumptions of the quantitative data analysis methods,

checking I had not violated the assumptions of MANOVAS. In addition, I began to transcribe the interviews as soon as I could while my memory was fresh.

In Phase 3, I continued transcribing the interviews. This phase was the longest of the four phases. While transcribing, I read the participants' daily journal entries as well. On my first reading, I developed coding schemes by underlining some phrases and words using different colored pens and by making some notes about possible themes. After reading all of the daily journals, I wrote the themes that I thought more important as related to my research questions and then re-read all of them again. While reading them several times repeatedly, I met with colleagues who were interested in qualitative research and shared my preliminary findings. Also, I met my faculty mentor very often to report and share what I found interesting, and I met with my research assistants who had interviewed the participants and asked them whether the identified themes were relevant to my research questions. In this phase, I did member-checking by calling and by sending e-mails to a few of the participants to ask them whether my themes were what they felt and thought. Also, I met an instructor in my university who had done qualitative research and asked him about my themes and their relationships. All of these peer debriefers helped me to identify and specify where some of the themes were well supported and where they seemed unsubstantiated.

By Phase 4, I had almost fully identified the important themes related to my research questions. One of the themes was not expected before I started my research. I thought that this theme was unusual and perhaps particular to my study. I reviewed previous literature again to connect my themes to pre-existing findings and theories. I was able to connect my preliminary themes into pre-existing findings and theories. I read

all the daily journals, my observation memos, and the transcripts again to confirm whether the preliminary themes I had identified were well connected and well represented.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter, the results of quantitative and qualitative data are presented. First, I present results of the comparison of pre- and post-test scores for listening, reading, speaking and writing skills of the data. Second, I discuss themes that I drew through a qualitative analysis of the data. Last, data from a comparison group are briefly presented as a test of the findings of this study.

4.1. Quantitative Results

In order to compare the participants' pre-tests and the post-test scores, a Multivariate ANOVA was performed, chosen because it corrects for any inflation in a Type 1 error due to multiple tests. One factor was time of test, and the language skills were the dependent measures. The table below, Table 4.1, shows the descriptive results of these data, including the mean and standard deviation for each test.

Table 4.1.

Descriptive Statistics of Test scores of Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, and Structure

Task Type	Pretest			Posttest		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range
Listening	83.0	12.6	40.0-98.0	87.4	8.4	68.0-98.0
Speaking	5.53	0.78	4.0-7.0	6.19	0.72	4.5-7.5
Reading	87.1	9.91	54.0-100	87.1	7.99	65-100
Writing	6.4	0.77	5.0-8.2	7.0	0.75	5.0-8.0
Structure	84.7	7.38	65-99	86.9	6.90	67.0-96.0

Note. *N*=42

For listening, structure, and reading tests, the participants took a Web-based test developed by the study abroad program institute and possible scores range from 0 to 100. For the speaking and writing tests, these were taken in person and evaluated holistically by the native English speaking instructors. The range of possible scores was 0 to 9.

A One-way MANOVA run across the five task types revealed a significant effect for time, $F(5,37) = 127.3, p < .001$. Because the result of the one-way MANOVA showed significance, (Hotelling's trace $t=172.04, F(5,37)=127.3, p<.001$.) follow-up ANOVAs were run to determine which of the task types, if any, showed a significant effect for the time. Table 4.3 shows the results of these ANOVAs.

The next Table 4.2 shows the results of separate tests for each measure: Listening, Structure, Reading, and Speaking.

Table 4.2. Individual ANOVA's main effect of time for five dependent measures

Source	Measure	Mean Square	F	Partial Eta	Sig.	Observed Power ^a
time	Speaking	9.00	155.62	.791	.000	1.000
	Listening	407.44	8.67	.175	.005	.820
	Writing	9.07	115.78	.738	.000	1.000
	Reading	.05	.01	.000	.947	.050
	Structure	100.76	11.31	.216	.002	.907

a. Computed using alpha = .05, *d.f.* = 1,41

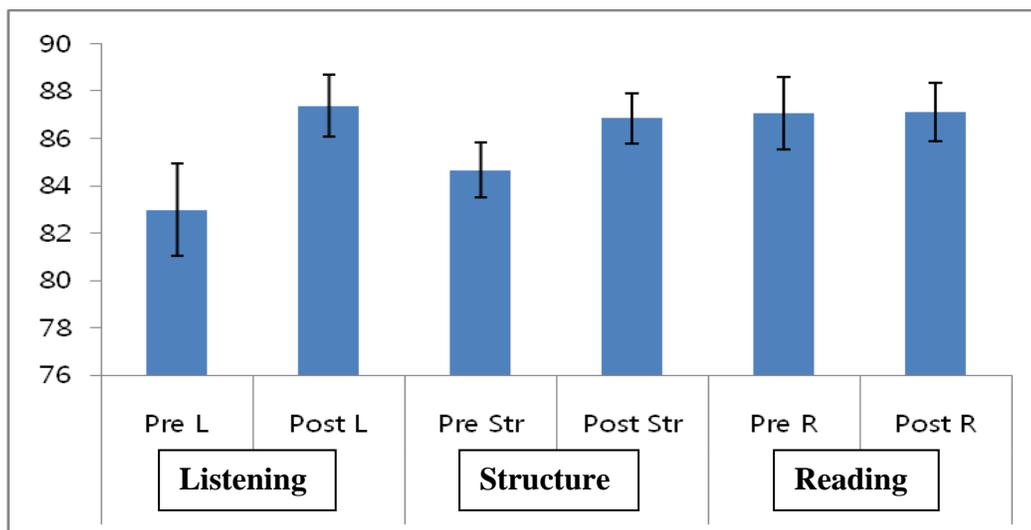
The posttest- scores on the Listening, Structure, Speaking and Writing tests were significantly different from the pretest scores.

Overall, the results of the MANOVA showed a significant difference between pretest and posttest scores ($p=.000$, observed power =1.000). Each measure's results

were as follows; Listening, significant, $F(1,41)=8.669$, $p<.001$; Structure, significant, $F(1,41)=11.311$, $p<.005$; Speaking, significant, $F(1,41)=155.615$, $p=.000$; Writing, significant, $F(1,41)=115.778$, $p<.005$. However, the comparison between pretest and posttest of Reading was not significant, $F(1,41)=.005$, $p=.947$, and the observed power of the Reading test was very low (.050.). The observed power of the other measures, Listening, Structure, Speaking, and Writing were higher than the power of Reading, implying that the results were reliable and had enough power.

The following Figures illustrate the differences of each measure between pre test and post test mean scores. In order to show the reliable results, error bars are shown in the following figures Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2.

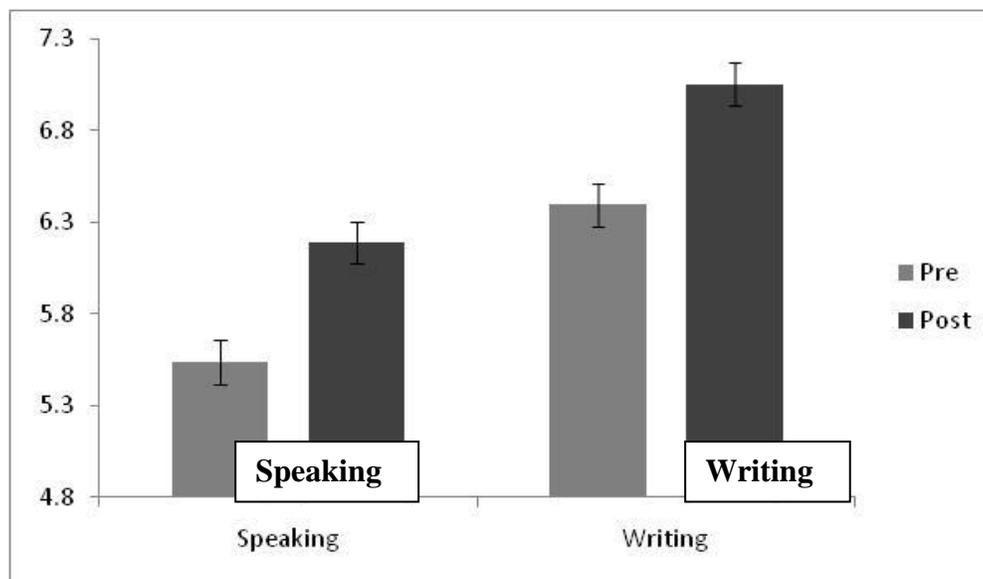
Figure 4.1 Listening, Structure, and Reading scores of Pre- and Post-test



The means are displayed in Figure 4.1, for the three measures that were scored on a 100-point scale and administered via the web: Listening, Structure, and Reading.

In Figure 4.2, its means are displayed for the measures scored on 5-point scales and that were ratings: Speaking and Writing.

Figure 4.2 Speaking and Writing scores of Pretest and Posttest



In sum, as shown in the Table 4.1 and 4.2 and Figure 4.1 and 4.2, mean scores on the Listening, Structure, Speaking, and Writing pretests and posttests were statistically different according to the MANOVA test. However, the comparison for mean pretest and post test scores of Reading was not statistically different as shown in Figure 4.1. Perhaps these participants in a study abroad program are more likely to be engaged in the local community to improve their oral communicative proficiency rather than reading books or articles at home (Freed, 1995; Kinginger, 2008; Stewart, 2010). The participants in this study also wanted to make more new friends in the target culture and community rather than spending time alone. Not surprisingly, oral based scores, especially their pronunciation and intonation, even though the program was only four weeks (Allen, 2002; Megnan, 2007; Stewart, 2010). In addition, the study abroad program director stated that the participants' reading proficiency was already very high, so there was no much room to show improvement in the measure used.

Their Reading proficiency was so high almost at the ceiling of the measure. So, it was hard to improve more. (From the informal interview with study abroad program director. May, 2010)

His opinion was supported by the reality that Korean English teachers are usually teaching English reading because the KSAT(the Korean version of Scholastic Aptitude Test) is mostly composed of reading comprehension questions (Kim, 2002; Kim, 2008). Also, Korean formal tests at school such as mid term or final exams, are mostly composed of reading comprehension questions, structure, and grammar, with a few writing questions. There are very few speaking questions and only a few listening questions, depending on the schools.

As for the other measure, one reason why the participants' pretest and posttest scores were statistically different even though the program was so short may be that the participants were struggling with jetlag on the day the pre tests were administered. Furthermore, the participants were all English teachers who were certified by the Ministry of Education's teacher certification exam. They were very knowledgeable of SLA theories and FL teaching methodologies and theories. They had already developed very specific linguistic goals and knew what to do to reach their goals. Thus, they were different from participants in previous studies of study abroad programs in terms of their specific goals and strategies. These may have contributed to why their pretest scores were statistically different from the posttest scores.

Next, I analyzed the participants' responses to the self-assessment developed by the National Language Corps Services (NCLS) for Listening, Speaking, and Reading. The

participants took the Self-Assessment developed by NLCS before the program began and at the end of the program, by checking self-ratings of their ability in these three language areas. Means and standard deviations of the numbers of items they checked at the end of the program are reported in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 *Descriptive Statistics of three measures' Self Assessments at the end of program*

Type of Self Assessment	M	SD	Range	
			Min	Max
Reading	.90	1.30	-2.00	5.00
Listening	1.36	2.28	-4.00	11.00
Speaking	1.38	1.78	-3.00	7.00

Note. N=42

Interestingly, as shown in Table 4.3, some of the participants reported that that they realized that they were not able to do some skills that they had thought they were able to do before this program. They reported that doing something was much harder than they had expected. Thus, the minimum score of each measure was below zero, indicating that some individuals had checked fewer skills at the end of the program than at the beginning, because many of them had never been to English speaking countries. Only a few had had experiences of staying in English-speaking countries for more than two weeks. Seven of the 42 participants reported that their English proficiency showed a reversal, meaning that they had not improved but had become less capable to do something in their English. The participants who changed their answer from “Yes” to “No” were generally more anxious and frustrated when they spoke in English with local

people. In addition, they had never been to English speaking countries before, so they had not expected that so many communicative misunderstandings could happen while they were abroad. Moreover, this finding shows that the English the participants had studied and taught until they came abroad was very different from the way English is used. More than half of the participants reported that their English had not improved as much as they had expected, even though they did check “Yes” for two or three sub items.

One participant who was the best speaker in the whole group wrote the following on her speaking self-assessment questionnaire:

Pronunciation became the major issue for many teachers including me. I found native speakers’ pitch more exaggerated. I feel like I became more familiar with the native speaker’ speech music. (Female teacher, the 4th week)

In one item for speaking, “There are a few grammatical features of the language that I try to avoid,” she checked the column “Yes” and wrote a note saying, *“I became more aware of the specific patterns of errors especially related to the pronunciation. The class helped me to correct myself rather being frustrated when native speakers couldn’t pick up what I said”*.

Also, she wrote one note right next to the item, “I am able to adjust my speech to suit my audience, whether I am talking to university professors, close friends, employees or others,” saying *“Still not that comfortable but now I feel like I can handle casual conversation with anyone”*. Thus, she still doubted her ability for this item but she felt she had improved somewhat over the program.

Unlike the findings of the reading pretest and posttest comparison, interestingly, some of the participants self-assessed that their reading competence had improved somewhat after the program, due to reading *“Twilight”* In the reading class, the

participants as a group had read this novel and some reported liking the novel very much. I observed that they brought the book everywhere they went, and this may have contributed to their improved self-assessment of their reading skills. One participant wrote that *“The strategy of skipping worked really well when I’m reading “Twilight.”*

Many of the participants reported that their English had not improved as much as they had expected when they began the program except two or three items on the self assessment. However, many of them still doubted whether they had truly become able to do certain specific items. Because of the four-week time constraints, they could not perceive to what extent they had improved specifically. Thus, although they were improving by the end of the program, many of the participants reported that they were in between the column “Yes” and “No,” or they said that they could do some skills sometimes but not always.

Interestingly, participants who reported that they actually felt they were less able to do certain things with the language than they had at the start of the program also reported a bit more anxiety than the average participant. They seemed to feel more frustrated and be more disappointed in themselves whenever they had communication failures with local people. Moreover, they seemed to be more modest about their skills than the average participant. Even though only a few rated themselves as being less able in terms of their English proficiency, it was a very important finding of this study because it echoes previous findings that a study abroad experience can sometimes surprise and confound participants.

In sum, although there was no significant difference between pretest and posttest scores on the web-based test of reading ability, the participants in this study perceived

themselves to have improved in all skills including reading. The participants self-assessed that they had become better speakers, listeners, and readers as a result of the short-term study abroad program. This finding can be supported by the fact that the majority of the participants' goals for this study abroad program aimed toward improving their speaking skills, and they worked very hard to speak more fluently and accurately, changing their pronunciation and intonation. Like many previous studies (Allen & Herron, 2003; Cubillos, Chieffo, & Fan, 2007; Kinginger, 2008), they self-assessed that they had improved their listening skills.

4.2. Qualitative Results

In this section, I describe this program qualitatively in more detail, focusing on how the program affected the participants' motivation, their journey (sojourn, Jacksen, 2008, 2010), their affect, and their social and language identity over the program.

Data sources were several. The participants' dailies entries, reflection papers, interview data, and my ethnographic field notes were transcribed, coded, and analyzed qualitatively. In addition, a few participants were interviewed after they had returned home to examine how their teaching may have changed and how their motivation or foreign language teacher anxiety may have been altered.

The method used to organize and interpret the data was the constant comparison method of grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), which is commonly used in analyzing, coding, and interpreting data in qualitative research. Three main themes were drawn from the data of the interviews, field notes, and the participants' daily journal entries. The first theme was the participants' role of the study abroad program in

increasing motivation and willingness to communicate. The second theme was increased awareness of cultural and linguistic differences. The last theme captured the participants' resistance to the dominant (target) culture presented by native speaking instructors. Aspects of these themes are quite similar to some previous findings reported in the literature (Pellegrino Aveni, 2005; Dufon & Churchill, 2006), whereas others such as reported in the third theme are more different.

I found interesting thoughts, narratives and opinions reported. Among them, the participants' motivation was still high and they felt more confident in teaching English in English (TEE). However, they were not happy about their teaching in their classrooms and schools because they saw the curriculum as focusing solely on enhancing the students test scores on the Korean version of the Scholastic Aptitude Test (KSAT), the college entrance exam. They have been just teaching their students as they used to do in a traditional way, especially high school teachers. Middle school teachers were able to adapt what they have learned in abroad into their teaching after abroad. Overall, many of the teachers were satisfied at their experiences in abroad and said that they were feeling more comfortable at teaching English in English (TEE) and missing their experiences in abroad. Table 4.5 shows the main themes that emerged from the participants' interviews, daily entries, and field notes.

4.2.1. How the participants' motivation was shaped by their study abroad journey

The participants in this study were all nature Koreans who were teachers of English in Korean. Generally, their motivation to improve their English had been high even though there may have been some variation depending on their personality, their

English proficiency, age, gender, the level they were teaching, and their teaching experiences. Therefore, the motivation of this study's participants was likely to be higher compared to undergraduate students, the more typical study abroad students.

As discussed in Chapter 2, motivation is a very important factor leading to a successful study abroad experience. Approximately 90% of the participants in this study were highly motivated and wanted to get the most out of this four-week study abroad teacher training program. Their schedule was very full as shown in Table 4.6. Every day, they had classes from 9 to 5. Their lunch was between noon and 2 p.m. As far as I could determine, no student ever missed a class. Furthermore, they seemed to be trying to explore the target culture by going to social meetings, shopping, going to the gym and swimming, going out for dinner and clubs after classes. Even between the classes, they seemed not want to waste time and instead to be wanting to use their time very effectively and efficiently. For example, I saw them doing assignments and reviewing what they had learned between the classes, memorizing the new words and idiomatic expressions they had learned from the classes. Especially during the first week, they seemed highly motivated.

**Table 4.4. The Daily Schedule of the Study Abroad program
Intensive English Teacher Training program
Winter 2010 Course Schedule**

Mon	Tue	Wed	Thurs	Fri
9 - 9:50				
Reading/Discussion				
10 - 10:50				
Writing Improvement				
11 - 11:50				
Listening/Speaking				
12 - 2				
Lunch				
2 - 2:50	2 - 4:50	2 - 2:50	2-4:50	2 - 2:50
Culture/Idioms	Guest Lectures & Field Trips	Culture/Idioms	Guest Lectures & Field Trips	Culture/Idioms
3 - 3:50		3 - 3:50		3 - 3:50
Communicative Grammar		Communicative Grammar		Communicative Grammar
4 - 4:50		4 - 4:50		4 - 4:50
Pronunciation		Pronunciation		Pronunciation

As discussed in Chapter 2, the participants' motivation in this study was shown to be a developmental process (Dorney, 2010). Some of the participants' motivations changed, moving from external sources of motivation such as TEE policy and receiving a certificate as a TEE Master or TEE Ace to more internal sources of motivation such as wanting to be engaged in the target culture and watching American TV shows or movies without Korean subtitles. Performing well in the courses of the program was directly related to their grades and scores, and was the one reason they wanted to perform well in

the classroom. However, as the program went on, they became more motivated intrinsically rather than extrinsically. Even though they were very tired after classes, they did not want to miss any chance to engage more with the local people and immerse themselves in the local culture. For example, even though they were very tired after classes and school visits, they went to a Super Bowl party and Salsa dancing, one of the informal classes offered by the university for students. They went to the gym not only to exercise and to concert halls not only to enjoy music or opera but also to become more familiar with American culture.

Based on the data collected in this study, their motivation was not fixed but more of an on-going process shaped by multiple factors. These Korean learners of English had their motivation shaped by not only external sources but also internal sources, and self-regulated by these various sources. Thus, it was difficult for me to determine whether their goals were related to their future career advancement because there was no guarantee to be promoted or get higher salaries if their English improved. They seemed simply to have a near-native like proficiency, especially in their pronunciation. The following are quotes from the interviews and daily journal entries. (Note that most interviews took place in Korean and I have translated these into English where appropriate most (or all) journal entries were written in English as part of their class activity and these have not been in any way corrected but appear in the participants' own words.)

I just want to speak just like native speakers. I think if I try hard to practice and memorize idiomatic expressions that are used very commonly in daily life here, I can get to that level. I will try very hard to get close to that level during this four-week program. (Trans. Interview, the 1st week, a female teacher)

I will try very hard here not to lose any chance not only to improve my English but also for to make many new friends and experience American life doing the social programs. In order to that, I can't even have enough sleep at night. Because I have to go out to the bars or shopping at night after class to explore authentic American lives, I find I need to sleep a little bit after lunch. (Trans. Interview, the 1st week, female teacher)

I will review some new words and idiomatic expressions that I've learned during the classes between class. Also, I will do my assignment between classes because I don't have enough time to do these assignments after class. I have to go to the concert hall to listen to live music and walk around downtown. (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, female teacher)

As shown in the above examples, the participants were very motivated to improve their English, especially their intonation and pronunciation. The general phenomena on I observed the four-week program was that they were highly motivated to learn the target culture and target language itself, not because they wanted to be promoted or for future career development but because they enjoyed English itself and felt a sense of achievement.

Similar to the “honeymoon stage” in Culture Shock Theory (Adler, 1975), their motivation was extremely high in the first week. They wrote they were very curious about the target culture, and eager to communicate with local people. However, from time to time, they felt frustrated whenever they experienced misunderstandings in restaurants, bookstores, and wherever they went.

4.2.2 Increased Awareness of Cultural and Linguistic Differences

As the program progressed, the participants became more aware of the cultural and linguistic differences between their home and the target culture. Whenever the

participants went to the cafeteria, classrooms on campus, shopping, wherever they went, whomever they met, they became more aware of linguistic differences and cultural differences, and frequently reflected on the differences they found interesting in their daily journal entries. As the program gradually progressed, they became more and more aware of the differences. During the last week, eventually some of them were able to compare and evaluate the cultural and linguistic differences. In this section, I describe first the cultural differences the participants found and pointed out between Korea and the U.S. from a sociocultural perspective. Next, the linguistic differences the participants recognized over the program are also presented.

4.2.1.1. Increased Awareness of Cultural Differences

Even though the four-week program was quite short term, the participants in this program was able to become aware of many cultural differences between these two cultures. While the participants were on field trips to such historical places the Alamo in San Antonio and after they visited several schools in the local school district, they wrote about cultural differences in their daily journals and mentioned these in interviews. Positive aspects of American culture the participants pointed out included: the friendliness and openness of American people, volunteerism, respect for others' privacy, praising individual merit, being practical, generosity, pursuing fun, being optimistic, and thinking positively. Many of these characteristics were similar to ones mentioned by Kim (2000). On the other hand, these were negative aspects of American culture that the participants also pointed out: wastefulness, unhealthy foods and overindulgent eating, racial discrimination under the surface. Moreover, the participants became aware of the

pragmatic differences. For example, they recognized that greetings frequently used in the U.S and responses to those greetings in the U.S. were different from what they had learned in Korea even though they thought that these greetings were very simple and easy to learn.

Positive cultural aspects perceived by the participants

First, below are some of the positive things that the participants mentioned about American culture.

American people always smile whenever they see each other even though they don't know each other. Here in Austin, I met so many American people in the cross roads, elevators and restaurants smiling each other. Also, they just gave me a smile, which made me so happy regardless of their gender .Of course, we smile a lot to our friends or colleagues or elder people but not very often to people we don't know well. If someone smiled me even though I don't know them in Korea, I would have asked them, "Do you know me?" or "Have we met each other before?" If someone, especially opposite sex person had smiled me, I would have thought if he/she likes me or is flirting with me, or would have run away from them, because I would have felt a little bit unpleasant or bothered depending on the person who had smiled me. (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, a female teacher)

In the elevator and in the hallway, people greet each other and at least they smile each other. In Korea, we don't greet in the elevator to people we don't know. However, in the street or in the hall way, we bow to the elderly people. So in my school, my students always bow to me whenever they meet me. Also, whenever I meet the older teachers than I am, I always bow to them. Here in the U.S. nobody bows each other. Between the very close friends, they just hug each other. Here in the U.S., sometimes I was about to bow to the professors who gave special lectures and vice principals or vice-principal when I visited an American school here. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a male teacher)

As mentioned above, many participants pointed out the American people's friendliness. They appreciated this aspect very much.

Also, in the classroom, the teachers were always smiling to their students I want to be a teacher who smiles to pupils all the time. They are very friendly. I feel I

can make lots of friends. But, due to my limited English, I couldn't extend my conversation with the friends I wanted to make further. It was a kind of shame. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

Also, the participants noticed that waiters or waitress are very kind to their customers and vice versa.

At restaurants, when people ordered some food, waiters or waitress asked how they liked their food. Their responses were always positive like "it's really good." Or "it's perfect." In Korea, we respond very honestly. When it is salty, we say it is salty or it is too greasy. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

The second positive aspect the participants were aware of was the openness of the Americans they met.

Generally, American people are very open-minded. Also, they like talking about their everyday lives. Even though I didn't ask them about their days, they just start to talk about their everyday lives or how things are going on. It was so much fun to listen to their talking about themselves because we don't usually talk ourselves a lot until someone asks us to do. (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, a female teacher)

Thus, Americans were seen as very open, as willing to share about their own lives. This is often recognized as one of the virtues and values of Americans. Unlike Americans, in Korea, people have been raised to be good listeners rather than talking much about themselves because of a fear of being perceived as proud or arrogant. So, Koreans are likely to be reserved.

The third positive aspect was found in the atmosphere of American secondary school classrooms. The participants mentioned that in the secondary schools they observed, they recognized that American teachers always smiled at their students and were trying to give them with positive feedback.

American teachers always look positive, never said negative things or pessimistic things, they always encourage their students. They looked never worrying.” (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a male teacher)

American teachers always being confident, always saying “I am fine, I am ok.” Also, they are open to their students’ voices and opinions even though their opinions were different from the right answers. They just respect their students. These were what I found very interesting. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

The participants also recognized differences in the students’ behaviors and attitudes in their classrooms from Korean ones.

Many students and kids were very well-behaved in their classrooms. They showed their respect to their teachers with calling “Mr. someone or Ms. someone. That was so cute because they didn’t call their teachers by their first names. We Korean call our teachers not even by their last names but by Teacher or Professor instead of Mr. or Ms. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

In the American school, students participated in their class activities with raising their hands a lot. Even when they are not sure of the teachers’ questions, they just shared their thoughts and ideas. In Korea, Koreans hardly raise their hands even though they know the answers. When they are very little like seven or eight years old, they are willing to answer teachers’ questions no matter what the answers they know. However, as they grow up, generally, they are getting shy and humble or don’t want to look showing what they know. Otherwise, they can be isolated from their peers. (Trans. Interview at the third week, female teacher)

I had chances to audit the graduate courses. I realized that all the students looked very enthusiastic and participated very positively. The instructors always gave a lot of encouragements and compliments. The atmosphere and the relationship between the instructors and students were a little bit different from the relationship between the teachers and students in Korean classrooms. Sometimes students just started to take their snacks or sandwich out. They didn’t care about eating during the lecture. In our culture, we can’t imagine that students are eating while teachers are lecturing or teaching. (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, female teacher)

Some of the participants found the Pledge of Allegiance very interesting in the schools they visited. Below the quote shows how some of the participants compared the American school system with Korean one.

Also, every class, the students and teachers were doing the “Pledge to the America” I was extremely shocked. Even in Korea, we are not doing that anymore, doing the pledge to the country was ceased at the late 80’s in Korea. Because we think it reminds us of an army school or something during the war. Why do they do this still? To me, America had been one of the most democratic countries. Anyway, I found it a very different aspect of America. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

The fourth positive aspect the participants noticed was that American people were very considerate of others.

*They always yield to the ladies or kids to let them go first. They are **holding doors for the other people**. This (being considerate to others) is one thing that we Koreans should learn. I think that being kind or being considerate to others has been well-rooted in their everyday behaviors. Maybe they grow up to be kind and be considerate others first. To me, it looks like this attitude is just coming out of by itself. I think that American people are not just pretending to respect the others but they really do. (Trans. Interview, from the 3rd to the 4th weeks, many teachers)*

The fifth positive aspect was the atmosphere of working or studying contexts in the U.S.

*The atmosphere of the U.S. is very calm, peaceful and quiet. In Korea, it is always very crowded, very busy, competitive, and loud. In Korea, people seem that they don’t know how to enjoy themselves. They look very serious and always hard-working. Here in the U.S., I think humor is one of the very important factors when we evaluate people. We should change and **adapt something good** from the US cultures to become similar to the U.S. Also, we need to be more optimistic and positive when we teach our students. (Trans. Interview, the 4th week, a female teacher)*

The sixth positive aspect was being willing to donate or volunteer to help others.

*Whenever I go to stores or cafeteria, I saw the donation jars. People **just volunteer** whatever they think it is important to them or others. I saw many American undergraduate or graduate students to volunteer to say their opinions when I audited some classes. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)*

In schools, schools ask their parents to donate some money for building a new computer rooms or library. In Korea, we used to push parents to give money to schools to build some new facilities. But now, it is illegal to ask parents to give their money to help their children's schools. Only the Ministry of Education supports these kinds of school supplies or facilities in public schools. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

The seventh positive aspect was the respect for others' culture or respect for differences in multicultural society.

*I saw **many different ethnic groups** in streets and stores. I came to realize that why America is called as multi-cultural society. It was so different from where I used to live. In Korea, almost all people just speak Korean and we are all ethnically Korean. Only in some historical places or popular places, we can meet many foreign visitors. We have hardly been mixed with other ethnic groups throughout our history. Recently, however, some immigrants from Asian countries such as Philippines, China, Thailand, Uzbekistan, etc have increased. Many people expect that Korea will be multi-cultural society within 10 years due to increase of the foreign immigrants. (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, a female teacher)*

It was fun to listen to various kinds of English when I observed some ESL classes here. Sometimes, it was hard to understand some students' English when students from China, India, Latin America, Singapore, Saudi Arabia were speaking English. I found it to get them but many American teachers seemed to understand them. I realized that English is a global language (Lingua Franca). (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

On campus, I met many various ethnic groups; Indian, Chinese, Arabic. Also, I saw Hizap women, Persian women, and Indian women because they were their own customs. They were speaking English with their own native languages' accents. American people seemed not to mind their English, respecting others' differences. (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, a female teacher)

I am not sure whether I remember correctly or not, but I saw some airport signs, when I entered the U.S. They said that we respect all visitors no matter who they are from. It seems to me that American people are trying to respect the others. We Koreans are not used to doing that, because Korean society used to be very unitary culturally and linguistically. But, in somehow, we should learn that attitudes toward others in a global era. (Interview, a female teacher)

Negative cultural aspects perceived by the participants

By contrast to the above positive aspects, the participants also became aware of some negative cultural aspects. They were not simply aware of these negative aspects but also evaluated these differences through their own lenses. Some of the participants were able to see two sides of the same aspect. For example, they mentioned that yard or garage sales are very good for recycling unwanted objects and saving our environments. However, American people are also wasteful of their food and whatever they do not want to have anymore.

The first negative aspect was Americans' wastefulness compared to their own culture's customs.

*They are wasting a lot of things trashing many things which are still available to poor countries' people. They don't need to save the wastes and recycle them because they have lots of natural resources. But in Korea, it's a very small country without few natural resources. We have only human resources. We need to recycle them. So, to me, Americans **seemed to be wasting a lot.***

*I know they have yard sales and garage sales. I was happy to see those sales in person that I only read some books in Korea. But, even though they have these sales, to me, **they are still wasting a lot.***

*In Korea, we must separate all the trashes into subcategories; plastics, bottles, papers, metals, leftover foods. Otherwise, we have to pay a lot of fines. It is not only because we want to save money but also we don't want to ruin our environment. We take care of our environment. But here, everybody **just put all the trashes in the same trash bin.** It looks so strange to me. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, female teachers)*

We use our own grocery shopping bags. Stores are not allowed to give free bags for customers in order to reduce trashes. If we forget to bring shopping bags, we have to buy some bags. Even though a shopping bag is just cheap, through this policy, we reduce many trashes and save our environment more than before. To me, American people don't care for their environments.

American government warns some third countries not to cause air or water pollutions in order to save the earth. However, the way they live is different from what they are saying to other countries. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a male teacher)

The second negative aspect the participants became aware of was that there was still some racial discrimination that existed under the surface. Especially, they reported seeing discrimination of immigrants who cannot speak English well.

***Racial discrimination** was still there. It was so sad. In the streets or construction sites, janitors and cleaning ladies were all Hispanic (Latina or Latina) I am not a racist. To me, it was so shocking and I felt very pity on them.*

Dual language or bilingual programs are also for the children whose parents are Mexican immigrant. I heard one example from one of the teachers when I visited one school. She sometimes said to her students, if you want to work at Walmart or Macdonald's, you don't need to learn and speak English well. But, if you really want to get a good job, you have to speak English well. So, kids from Latin American immigrant backgrounds felt shamed on that their parents can't speak English well as they are growing up.

*To me, it is not just racial discrimination but also **language discrimination**. If we can't speak English well, we are treated like a disabled people or linguistically challenged people. People look at us in a strange way. I can feel that they are looking down on us even though they don't say that verbally. But, they can't hide these feelings with their facial expressions.
Americans' politeness: is it real or are they just pretending to be polite? (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)*

The third negative aspect the participants recognized was different groups of students within a society seemed to want to associate only with their own kind.

*On campus, everybody, I mean, **goes with their own ethnic groups**. For example, African Americans always flock together and go together. White Americans go together. Asian Americans go together all the time. It was very strange to me.*

I couldn't find any exceptions on campus or downtown. Of course, we Korean teachers always flock together and went together because we are not allowed to go on our own. But here, people were born here in the U.S., grew up and were educated here in U.S., even though their ethnicity is visually different. Why are even young college students always congregating with the same ethnic group? That was so strange to me. I still have that question. So, one day, I asked one Asian American guy on campus. He told me that "even though I was born, grew up, and educated here, to me still culturally Asian friends are more comfortable

to hang out with and easy to get along with well.” (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, a female teacher)

Participants’ Neutral feelings about Cultural Aspects

In addition to the positive and negative aspects of American culture, some participants also asked some questions that I interpreted as reflecting a neutral stance.

I know Americans are very kind and polite to others. Whenever I have an embarrassing moment while having some difficulties in expressing my opinions or thoughts, I wonder whether Americans are really so kind or are they just pretending. Of course, I know even in embarrassing moments, the majority of Americans are willing to help us and try to understand us. I am talking about some of the other Americans. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a male teacher)

In sum, many of the participants showed an increased awareness of cultural differences by comparing and contrasting and sometimes evaluating their own native cultures with that of the host community over the course of the four-week study abroad program. Even when they experienced cultural differences, they saw them in both positive and negative ways, such as garage sales and wastefulness. Overall, they recognized cultural differences both in a positive and a negative way. As shown in the above excerpts from interviews and journal entries, they had more positive attitudes toward American culture. This increased awareness of cultural differences triggered an increasing awareness of linguistic differences, to which I turn next.

4.2.2.1 Increased Awareness of linguistic differences including pragmatic differences

As the participants became more aware of cultural differences, they also became aware of some linguistic differences including phonological, structural, pragmatic differences from what they had learned and expected before the study abroad experience.

4.2.2.1.1 Phonological Differences

At the beginning of the program, many teachers thought that their English was quite good, certainly good enough to communicate with local people. However, they quickly discovered that this was not true as they encountered many communicative failures. Thus, they had to repeat what they had just said and ask for clarification about what their interlocutors was saying.

As a rule, many of the participants were very disappointed and depressed by these communicative failures. The interlocutors' puzzled look in response to the participants' limited English and awkward pronunciation made them more anxious. Moreover, the mistakes they made were often very simple ones, violating primary grammar rules like singular and plural and tenses that even beginners are not making. Whenever they made these silly mistakes, they would get more frustrated and more anxious, and particularly ashamed and embarrassed because they are all English teachers.

Whenever we encountered communication failures during grocery shopping, it made me sad and depressed. For example, I asked "where are eggs?" The clerks couldn't understand me. I repeated several times. I explained with my hands. But they were confused with "apples." At last, I showed a picture in the store. I didn't know I can't distinguish two different vowel sounds. Actually, in Korea, we are not focusing on distinguishing these phonetic differences. We just learn and study to improve reading and grammar skills. Anyway, the clerks' weird looks when I asked something or when I said something made me very embarrassed. They looked at me in a strange way because they couldn't understand me. It really made me sad because I thought I was quite good at speaking, but in reality the local people can't understand me. I feel like I am a dumb and linguistically challenged person. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

Sometimes, they heard "Wow, your English is so good" from a local person. Still, they were not happy with such praise because they thought the praise indicated that their

English was quite good compared to other foreigners (internationals) and also, it implied that their English still sounded non-native like.

Furthermore, after they said something to native speakers, they felt that their American interlocutors pretended to understand what they were talking about well not to be impolite or rude to them. Likewise, they also pretended to understand what their interlocutors were talking about. Sometimes, they just laughed at what their interlocutors had said even though they could not quite understand.

4.2.2.1.2 Stress and Intonation Differences

Standard Korean does not have as much variation in intonation as English. Some Korean dialects have particular intonation variation but standard Korean is very flat, except for interrogative sentences. Korean words do not have as much stress as English words. Thus, Koreans are not used to speaking words or sentences with stress and intonation. If someone speaks Korean with stress and intonation, he or she must be a foreigner. Also, English is a stressed-timed language but Korean is a syllable-timed language. These differences create special difficulties for Koreans who are not familiar with speaking a foreign language that has marked stress or intonation. The participants already knew all of this from their early preparation in college. However, they mostly knew this knowledge academically, and had hardly ever experienced how important it is to speak English with stress and intonation. They became more critically aware of the rhythm of English as they tried to follow and imitate these patterns.

When I was in undergraduate, I learned all these theories and knowledge in my phonetics course. But, I had never practiced speaking words with stress or speaking sentences with intonation. I hadn't recognized how important they are. Now, I can see their importance and am trying to follow these patterns. (Interview, the 4th week, a male teacher)

Over the program, many participants concentrated on improving their English speaking skills with stress and intonation while getting more aware of the phonetic and phonemic differences of English.

4.2.2.1.3 Discourse and Syntactic Differences

The participants as a group were quite advanced in their general knowledge of standard English syntax. However, even though many participants already knew what phrasal verbs were, they had not very frequently used these phrasal verbs because the majority of them had never been to an English speaking country. In addition, even though they had been teaching English reading through textbooks, these had always been written using a formal language.

In the oral speech of many speech variants of English in the U.S., many phrasal verbs are used. The participants were not familiar with such verbs such as “turned out,” “go through,” “ended up with,” etc. Their experiences abroad led them to an awareness of how important these phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions were to an understanding of their native interlocutors.

Not only these word patterns but also the ways native speaking people structured sentences were not very familiar to the participants, such as how to “soften.”

In the lectures, some instructors used, “You don’t have to ~ but if you create your own account, it will be much easier”, “You don’t have to. But, it will be ~.” These expressions imply that in general, U.S. people do not want to push others directly. They always respect other people’s choices.

“One thing I would like to recommend is that~,” “What I’d like you to do is that ~”, “one of the things that I noticed is that ~”, the above ones were frequently used different from what we Korean say. I think, we are more directly speaking. It was a little bit different from what I expected. Before I came here, I

thought that American people have very strong their own opinions and speak in assertive ways. But, that was not seemingly all correct. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)

As shown the above examples, Korean participants were becoming aware of linguistic nuances. Furthermore, they were trying to connect these linguistic differences to the ways Americans think or to American culture in a broader way.

4.2.2.1.4 Pragmatic Differences

Another kind of linguistic difference the participants found interesting was related to pragmatics. As shown in the examples below, the participants were confused by very simple greetings that are very frequently used every day in the United States. When some participants went shopping, a store clerk said to them, “How are you doing today?” After a while, the clerk asked the participant again, “Is everything OK?.” He did not understand what the clerk was asking. He wanted to ask of the clerk, “What did you say?” The participant heard the same phrases repeatedly whenever he went into stores. Eventually, he asked one clerk, “Could you say that again? Because I didn’t get you, could you please say it a little bit slowly?” Finally, the participant came to know what the clerk meant. The Korean teachers were not used to using such greetings in Korea. They had been teaching very complicated English sentences, explaining grammar rules. Throughout this program, many participants came to recognize the pragmatic differences to which they had not paid attention.

Whenever the participants were asked, “How is everything going?,” or “Is everything OK?,” they tried to answer these questions seriously, not recognizing them as

greetings. In Korea, these greetings had not been emphasized in English instruction. Thus, many participants reported having difficulties in responding to these every day greetings.

*For example, the waitress or waiter just kept asking, “**Is everything ok?**” Even though it was not that good, everybody said, “It is really good. Thank you.” That was very interesting to us. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a male teacher)*

*Another one is about greeting. People said “How are you?” or “How is it going, how are you doing? What’s up?” **as greetings**. At first, I interpreted just as literal meanings and tried to explain what happened to me today or recently. So, I responded like this instead of saying, “I am okay. I am great.” Because in Korea, we usually say that I am just so-so or I’m feeling like I’m dying because everything is not going well. Even though that is not true, we just respond like that in a humble way. In Korea, being a good listener is the important virtue. Instead of talking a lot about themselves, in Korean families, we were educated to be a good listener. However, here in the U.S., if someone just stays quiet and doesn’t say much about himself or herself, they **are treated as very shy or reserved. Shyness is not considered as a good virtue, unlike in Korea.** (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher)*

The participants noticed not only differences in greetings but also differences in apologies. As shown below, several participants become aware of how often apologies were used and when these apology expressions should be said.

*They are always saying, “Thanks,” “Excuse me, or Excuse us” in stores, whenever I block their way. Also, whenever I said to someone they were blocking my way, they always said, “Oops, sorry or excuse me or excuse us.” At first, I couldn’t understand why they said that even though it was not their fault or mistake. As time went on, I got used to these expressions. However, I saw many of my colleagues not saying those expressions, “Excuse me, or Oops so sorry” to **other local people, not because they are rude or impolite, but because they are not used to saying that.***

When we write the address, the order is the opposite of the way we write. Also, when we write an email, we learned, we should put the “Dear” at first and “yours sincerely” at the last. But the way people here write very differently from what I thought and learned. We have learned only very formal ways to write, not informal ways of writing. After I get back to Korea, I can teach my students more

authentic ways for how to write e-mails. (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, a female teacher)

We were taught to write “Faithfully, sincerely” at the end of our writings. But here, they just write, “Best” to close friends. It depends on whom they are writing to. It was very interesting to me. (Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, a female teacher)

As discussed in Chapter 2, these findings that the participants were able to understand many pragmatic differences are supported by many previous studies (Hoffman-Hicks, 1999; Cohen & Shively, 2007; Matsumura, 2007).

Finally, many participants showed awareness of the linguistic differences and realized that some of their English had become fossilized (Frashen, 1978) as shown in below.

As most Koreans do, I have a hard time pronouncing “r” since there is no sound close to “r” in Korean. Korean is very chunky, meaning, it does not have flowing intonation in the sentence, and each word has the same intonation pattern. When I speak English, the intonation and words are chopped up because of my Korean accent. Most importantly, there is no rolling tongue movement in Korea. When I say the word “church,” I skip the “r.” And other phonemes such as distinguishing the vowel sounds in words like “live” and “leave,” and the initial and final consonant sounds like “d” in “afraid” are great challenges. Due to a lack of ability to pronounce detailed phonemes, I hear the phoneme but I am unable to pronounce it because I do not have the ability to use my tongue like natives. For example, I cannot pronounce “s” or “-ed” at the end of the word. For any words with “s” at the end, I cannot make that short consonant sound that uses the detailed air flow out of mouth, but instead I make a thick “s” sound. Morphology is another challenge. Since in Korean grammar, distinctions between singular and plural are hardly observed or emphasized and affixes do not exist, I often do not know how to choose the appropriate form of the verb or make plural forms. For example, I say, “Many people talking about very difficult,” not recognizing the correct form of the verb. Also, I say, “My family is speaking Korean,” unable to use a more appropriate form of the verb to be. In my sentences, I skip plural forms such as different four “season” instead of “seasons.”

As shown in the above example, the participants were able to realize that some errors they always made had become fossilized even though they knew their pronunciation was incorrect. In addition to pronunciation, some participants commented on discourse level differences:

I learned that the way the English speakers write something is very straightforward, not like the way oriental people do. What I found very interesting was that the way the locals speak looked to me not very straightforward, different from what we do. In Korea, we are not very familiar with discussing or negotiating with someone. From a Confucius background, usually, older individuals suggest or order something, and then younger people just follow their decisions. Or, parents at home and teachers at school suggest or order the children or students, and they just follow their decisions or suggestions. That was the way we communicate with someone. That's why when we were asked to suggest or express our opinions or thoughts, we are stuck or we are not accustomed to openly present our thoughts. Or, older people who are used to order something, they just speak in the way they are used to but in English. That's why they sometimes seem to be rude or impolite from an American perspective. The way Americans speak seem like they are very considerate of others or others' opinions. They are very careful not to hurt others' feelings. That's why they use, "I am not sure that you have already talked about this or not ~ but I have a question or I am not sure of this ~." That's why they frequently use "I am not sure ." (Trans. Interview, the 4th week, a female teacher).

As shown in the above excerpt, some of the participants had begun to realize the differences in the ways of local individuals and their way of speaking and writing. Even though it was a very short four week program, they had become more aware of these linguistic differences.

In sum, the participants were becoming more aware of linguistic differences including phonemic, structural, and pragmatic differences between Korean and English. They were also becoming excited at their increased awareness of cultural and linguistic differences. These findings are in line with many previous studies that have reported many positive outcomes of study abroad programs in terms of intercultural and linguistic

competence. Furthermore, these findings are also in line with the sociocultural perspective of Bahktin (1981) and Vygotsky (1986) who argued that language learning cannot be separated from the cultural contexts in which the language is used. Overall, the participants increased their socio-linguistic competence through their experiences in the program.

4.2.3 Resistance to the dominant culture represented by native instructors (Resistance to the power of the native culture)

The participants in this program were divided into three categories, Group 1, Group 2, and Group 3, based on their English proficiency placement tests. All of them were Korean teachers of English, so their English proficiency was above intermediate. Their proficiency levels can be named as Intermediate-mid, Intermediate-high, and Advanced level, following ACTFL guidelines. From the second week, many of the participants in the advanced group began to say that one of the native English-speaking instructors was showing a little bit of a condescending attitude toward them. As the program progressed, more participants stated that the way she taught them was very condescending and was sometimes insulting them or their cultures. The instructor had eight years of experience in teaching English in Korea. She was very knowledgeable about Korean culture, food, and knew some Korean. She taught two courses in this program, the Listening/Speaking course and the Pronunciation course. In the pronunciation class, she put emphasis on the American way of speaking and intonation. However, the participants thought of English as a global language not just the language that Americans speak. The participants told the instructor that if the English people are

speaking is understandable, the intonation and pronunciation with their own accents is acceptable, even though it is not very native like. Between the participants and the instructor, there were many discussions about cultural and linguistic differences between Korea and the U.S. Whenever the participants wanted to talk to her about Korean culture, she said, “You just have to follow the way we Americans speak.” Moreover, in the culture class, the participants interpreted the articles she handed out or topics she presented as implying that the American culture is better than any other culture, including Korean people’s. Negative thoughts or attitude towards this instructor increased over the program. On the last day of the program, more than two thirds of the participants mentioned that they felt very frustrated and less motivated because of the instructor’s condescending attitude toward them and the Korean culture.

*The native speaking instructor was dismissing our opinions and was very condescending to us. I think she was pretending to be humble, but, actually was looking down on the participants. She always pushed us to follow her pronunciation. “Follow me, this is the way we Americans speak. You have to follow me and mimic me and imitate me exactly the same as me.” On the first day of the class, we just practiced for an hour and a half how to pronounce our name, and it was just so ridiculous. I thought it is just like a waste of time. We came here to discuss how we can teach English as a global language not as an American language. **We were not treated as equal English teachers like them. We were just treated like little kids, because of our limited English.** (Trans. Interview, the 4th week, a male teacher)*

*She is always throwing hand-outs to us at the beginning of the class. I don’t know how other participants feel. But, it is very annoying to me. I felt she was showing the underlying attitude that she is superior to us. Of course, she is a native- speaking teacher. So, she is better than us in terms of speaking ability. However, I think we are not so bad as she pointed out to us as English teachers. English does not just mean speaking. It means more than just speaking. I wish she **had an attitude to understand our challenges and help us.** I wanted to build rapport with her over the program. Unfortunately, the relationship with her was*

getting worse and worse at the end of the program. (Trans. Interview, the 4th week, a female teacher)

I wanted to discuss many challenges we are facing in the classroom especially when we teach pronunciation, intonation, and American culture. Also, we know we have a strong Korean accent when we speak English. We are trying to get rid of them but it is hard to do that at the age of 41, now. Speaking like a native speaker is like practicing my muscles and tongue. It's hard to do now because we are all grown-up after puberty. Instead of practicing like parrots, we could have improved other more important skills during her classes, I think. (Trans. Interview, the 4th week, a female teacher)

As shown in the above, many participants were reporting that they were irritated, bothered, and more seriously, even insulted by the instructor during the classes. Also, some of them thought it was a very big problem in this study abroad program. They wanted to make this program better and better for other, future participants.

Another instructor was also seen as having a similarly problematic attitude as the first teacher. He taught the Grammar and Writing Improvement class. The participants appreciated the instructor's hard work because he gave feedback to their writings every day. However, during class, he asked them only to memorize idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs by doing very simple games. The participants were getting bored at this teaching method. Some of the participants who were in the advanced group asked him, "Why should we always repeat the same thing? We are getting sick and tired of these games. Let's try other games." However, the instructor just continued doing the same thing without trying to understand them. There was a big mismatch between the instructor and the participants in this class, too. Some of the participants also complained, "He didn't even try to respect our opinions. He just dismissed our opinions. We know

pros and cons of many teaching methods. We wanted to apply new teaching methods that are working well for Korean language learners in a more communicative way. The way he was teaching was very mechanical drill-oriented.” They argued that the way he taught the participants might be effective for novice learners but was not helpful for them.

The reasons why many participants developed three negative perceptions were various. The Korean participants in this study abroad were slightly different from previous groups these instructors had experienced before. Both instructors had had very good reputations from other Korean participants based on my pilot studies results. Both of them had quite a bit of teaching experience with Korean learners. However, the participants’ English proficiency in this study abroad program was more advanced than any other previous groups. They were very advanced not only in their English proficiency but also in their knowledge of second or foreign language teaching methods and all theories related to SLA and SLL than previous groups. Because, they knew many possible effective teaching methods or skills, they wanted to discuss some challenges they were facing in their classes.

Another reason why this resistance occurred in this study abroad experience can be found in the Korean social context. To be a certified teacher in Korea is becoming more competitive than it used to be because of job security. Also, a certain cultural attitude toward teachers, what many have assumed was based on Confucius philosophy, is changing in Korean culture. Teachers, in general, used to be very respected by students, their parents, and the whole community. Also, historically, teachers used to be very submissive to other teachers. However, as Korean society has developed, teachers

are not very submissive any more. Also, the Ministry of Education (MOE) pushes teachers to develop their professional specialties, making them more competitive with each other. Furthermore, modern parents and students are not as respectful of teachers as they used to be. Teachers feel that unless they develop their teaching abilities, they will not be respected by their students, parents, and their school colleagues, and perhaps even lose their jobs. Therefore, these teachers were eager to develop their professional careers such as TEE ability to maintain their status as teachers in a quickly changing society. Despite the participants' strong needs following these social changes, the instructors were unaware of these changes and of the participants' needs as English teachers in Korea, and simply were falling back on ways of teaching they had with previous Korean learners. Hence, the lack of mutual understanding and alignment between the instructors and the participants may have been one of the possible reasons why these misunderstandings occurred.

A final reason can be found in the idea of "In Betweenness" as a foreign language teacher identity. Because of their roles at home, they were positioned between foreign language learners and foreign language teachers when abroad.

Many of the participants stated that they were very frustrated by their limited English but also frustrated by the reactions of Americans in the local context.

I just want to ask Americans, "How well can you speak foreign languages?" Of course, they might speak their heritage languages or they can speak their first language if they have one. To Europeans, it will be easier to speak English well than to Asian people because they are using a similar alphabet. We are using totally different letters and grammar. They need to be more tolerant to speakers who are speaking English as a foreign language or second language. (Trans. the 4th week, a male teacher)

This “In-Betweenness” (Jackson, 2009) is discussed more in depth in Chapter 5.

4.2.4 Improvement of the participants’ Intercultural Competence and Intercultural Sensitivity

The last theme that emerged from the data was the change in the participants’ intercultural competence and intercultural sensitivity. As the program progressed, some of the participants showed an appreciation the multicultural diversity they encountered during the program. Even though many of the participants experienced both positive and negative aspects of the target culture, some of them mentioned that they appreciated coming to know better the “Others” and the diversity of cultures and languages.

*This is my first visit to U.S.A. People’s life style looks similar as any human, but looking more deeply into the society, systems and rules are quite different. For example, I am supposed to buy 1\$ -notebook, and I see the price tag written in 1\$ [\$1]. But when I stand in front of the cashier, I have to pay, I should give 1,08\$ [\$1.08]. It means [the] product has its [a] tax. So, before ringing up, I don’t know what the [exact] price is. And the one thing that I feel unsystematic is giving tips for almost every service. “We already pay for [paid with] proper money, why we should give some [more] money again!” I’m not good at calculating the tips, so sometimes calculating itself would annoy me. But if I would live here for a long time, **I must be [become] adjusted to this system. Just different!** (Daily entry journal, Week 4, a female teacher, age: 48)*

As shown in the quote above, the female teacher compared two different tipping systems. In Korea, the price of all products is written to include any sales tax. So, Koreans do not need to calculate what extra money they will need for tax or tips. She came to notice two different systems but eventually she convinced herself that she would need to adjust were she to live here. According to Byram (1997)’s concept of intercultural competence, because she tried to adjust to the new culture, not simply deny

or avoid it, she seemed to reach the level of acceptance and adaption of the other new culture.

Time flies. It is almost over. It is when I find myself starting to enjoy something that I realize to finish it. It is the way life goes, I guess.

With only a few more days I look back on how I spent time in Austin. What things I did and what I gained through the days in this study abroad program.

I learned how different the lives of here this university, students are from their counter parts in Korea. I get to see some differences in culture, for example, waiting in line, ordering foods in restaurants, different body languages when talking friends, different sounds and rhythm of their language, and scenes inside buses, and so on.....

The best thing I got here is that I feel more comfortable with people from different culture. This will help me teach students how to understand and communicate with people from different cultures.

I hope this period of time in Austin will be the turning-point of my life to change my life for the better. (Daily entry journal, the 4th week, a male teacher)

As presented above, this male teacher was one of the most resistant teachers to the native English speaking instructors. Sometimes he did not seem even to get along well with other Korean teachers. His English speaking proficiency was more advanced when compared to other male teachers, and yet he often looked not to be happy about being in this study abroad experience. However, he mentioned that he came to “feel more comfortable with people from different culture.” At the end of this program his intercultural sensitivity, according to Bennett’s (1993) stages, seemed to be in the Assimilation stage.

Not only these two participants but also several other participants wrote that they became more aware of differences and came to appreciate these differences. Some

participants' intercultural sensitivity and intercultural competence seemed to have moved from an ethnocentric stage to an ethnorelative stage.

4.2.5 Comparisons with participants in domestic teacher training program

As a final point, I want to describe what a few (3) participants who had attended a domestic immersion teacher training program had to say about their experiences that could shed light on the main findings of this study.

Interestingly, these participants did not mention anything that I could translate as an increased awareness of cultural and linguistic differences, even though they only spoke English throughout the program with native English-speaking instructors. They also did not show any of the resistance to the dominant culture presented by their native speaker teachers unlike the participants in this study abroad program.

In terms of self-assessments of their language skills, the participants in domestic the domestic program did not show as much improvement over the course of the program as much as the participants in the study abroad program had. It was not that they experienced the reverse. They stated that they simply wanted not to lose their English over the winter break. In order to maintain their English proficiency, they needed to participate in these domestic immersion programs. Their motivation did not show the developmental process that I found with the participants in the study abroad program. They seemed to participate in these domestic programs simply to get a certificate of TEE Master or TEE Ace in the TEE policy.

In sum, the study abroad participants' increased motivation, awareness of cultural and linguistic differences, resistance to the dominant culture, and improved intercultural

sensitivity were quite different from what I found from my interviews with a few participants who had attended domestic immersion programs in Korea.

Table 4.5. Summary of the main themes emerging from analysis of the qualitative data in this study

Main themes	Pre- Study Abroad	While in Study abroad	Post-Study Abroad
1	Pre-SA aspirations (excited, motivated)	Highly motivated to improve Willing to communicate	More confident in their teaching of English
2	Pre- SA Anxieties	Awareness of Cultural & Linguistic Differences	Familiarity with Target culture
3		Resistance to the Dominant Culture represented by instructors condescending attitude towards the participants	Being disappointed about their teaching reality
4		Changed Intercultural Sensitivity	

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the summary of the findings and makes connections to pre-existing relevant theories. First, the findings that were presented in Chapter 4 are briefly summarized. Second, the main themes are discussed by connecting them to pre-existing theories. Third, the limitations of this study are discussed. Fourth, the implications of this study are discussed, including the theoretical, methodological, pedagogical, and political implications.

5.1. Summary of the findings

As presented in Chapter 4, the findings of this study can be divided into two parts, quantitative analysis results and qualitative analysis results.

5.1.1. Quantitative data analysis 1

First, the quantitative data analysis of the pre and posttest score comparison of the participants' listening, speaking, writing, and structure language skills showed that there were statistically significant differences between pre and posttest scores over the program. These findings are supported by many other studies that have reported positive linguistic outcomes from study abroad programs regardless of the duration of the programs (Brachet, Davidson, & Ginsburg, 1995; Freed, 1995b; Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Juan-Garau & Perez-Vidal, 2007; Kinginger, 2008; Sasaki, 2004, 2007). Interestingly, however, the scores on the reading test did not show a significant difference between pretest and posttest. This finding can be explained by the characteristics of the participants in this study abroad program. As a group, the participants in this study were

very well-trained EFL teachers. They were very knowledgeable of various kinds of teaching and learning methodologies. Therefore, it was easier for them to improve their linguistic skills. However, the lack of significant difference on the reading assessment may have come from the fact that their reading skills were already very advanced as stated by the study abroad program director onsite. Thus, there was no room available for them to improve. This argument is supported by the fact that Korean English teachers spend much time teaching reading comprehension skills, and most of the curriculum in Korea has been focused on enhancing students' reading comprehension skills (Lee, 2002; Kim, 2004). Moreover, this argument seems to be similar to ceiling effects, which occur when a dependent variable is insensitive to detecting differences between control and treatment conditions because both groups score so well on the instrument (Allen, 2010). Therefore, their reading competence was already very advanced so that the program could not have much effect. In addition, it can be argued that a four-week study abroad program is too short to improve reading skills due to the fact that participants generally wanted to have more chance to practice their oral language skills engaging with local people by communicating with them. What is more, many participants in this program were trying to communicate with local individuals by writing or sending e-mails.

5.1.2 Quantitative Analysis 2

Self-Assessments before and after this study abroad program

Second, self-assessment questionnaires were used to investigate how the participants perceived their improvement in speaking, listening, and reading competence over the course of the program. Self-assessment surveys were selected based on research on study abroad programs that have reported ceiling effects with formal proficiency

assessments (Allen, 2010). Moreover, Barfield (1994) argued that “more than six weeks’ study abroad was needed for measurable language proficiency to be found” (Allen, 2010, p, 99). Hence, it was doubtful that formal pre/post-institute assessments would have revealed significant differences in target language proficiency with this particular group of foreign language teachers. Thus, similar to what Allen (2010) did, this study partially relied on participants’ self-perceptions/ reflections/ awareness of an increase in their language proficiency, and not only on the formal language proficiency assessments administered by the study abroad institute onsite.

Overall, more than half of the participants in this study seemed to perceive that they had become slightly better able to listen, speak, and read as shown by the fact that they checked a few more items out of the total of 88 items on the self- assessment surveys. Some of the participants reported that they were not sure of their improved proficiency. They simply perceived that they had become more often able to do, but ‘not always.’ Interestingly, however, a few of the participants perceived that they had not improved their language over the program, but that their language proficiency had actually become worse, at least in terms of their self-assessments. Overall, the participants’ self assessments seemed to vary, depending on possible overestimates before the program or self-monitoring processes in abroad

One of the possible reasons of this finding can be explained on the fact that the participants overestimated their English listening, reading and speaking skills before this program. It was hard to measure their practical English skills in Korea. Even though there are some formal English proficiency tests similar to the TOEFL, the TOEIC and TEPS developed by Seoul National University, these tests are not able to capture the

participants' English proficiency in Korea. For many, their English formal test scores were quite high, but they had seldom been evaluated to test their English listening and speaking skills with native English speaking interviewers before. Thus, they could now assess themselves more accurately.

Another possible reason for this can be that Korean teachers in general had not had enough opportunities to expose themselves to authentic contexts where English is used. They grew up and learned English in their country and had read some English or American essays or English textbooks.

Moreover, as well-trained English teachers, they could not help but be self-monitoring themselves when abroad. As Dekeyser (2010) argued, the monitoring process when studying abroad likely was activated by these participants who had been “prepared in the form of proceduralized or at least declarative knowledge of the second language grammar” (Dekeyser, 2010, p.80). Their declarative knowledge of English grammar needed to become automatized through practice with input and interaction (Dekeyser, 2010). Through these interaction and practice, the participants may have become actually aware of themselves through these their self-monitoring processes, reflecting and assessing their English proficiency in more detail. Therefore, they may have come to realize that they were not as good speakers, listeners, or readers as they had thought before the program.

The last possible reason is the fact that the Self-Assessment Questionnaires asked them to assess both linguistic skills and cultural knowledge in which the linguistic skills were embedded. Many of the items needed knowledge of the target culture to answer “Yes.” Participants in this study were Korean teachers of English who were not familiar

with the target (American) culture. In English education curriculum in Korea, teaching and learning the target culture has not been emphasized up until recently. Participants in this study had not had enough opportunities to be exposed to the target culture. This fact can be the other possible reason why the teachers perceived that they had become less competent than before over the course of the program. Before the program, they did not realize these cultural differences. However, through the program, they came to know more about cultural differences and realized that using the target language without appropriate cultural knowledge was not good. Possibly, they subconsciously came to realize that linguistic skills cannot be improved without target culture knowledge, and their English without enough cultural knowledge was not enough to perform the specific functions asked in Self- Assessment questionnaires.

In sum, there was little consistency in the findings of the self-assessment on an increase of language proficiency in my findings. A few of the participants stated that they became less confident than before. Many of them reported they became slightly more confident than before even though few of them made direct references to increased proficiency. Much educational research grounded in the theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986) has presented that teachers' confidence in their abilities is related to positive changes in students' behaviors and achievement levels (Allen, 2010; Schriver & Czerniak, 1999). Thus, developing confidence in teachers' content area through a study abroad experience is a meaningful factor that should not be underestimated for enhancing students' positive attitude to learning.

5.2. Main Themes in Light of Pre-existing Theories

From the qualitative data analysis in this study, four main themes emerged: 1) increased motivation that reflected various internal and external sources, 2) increased awareness of cultural and linguistic differences, 3) resistance to the dominant culture represented by the native speaking instructors, and 4) improved intercultural sensitivity. These main themes are discussed in more detail in the following section.

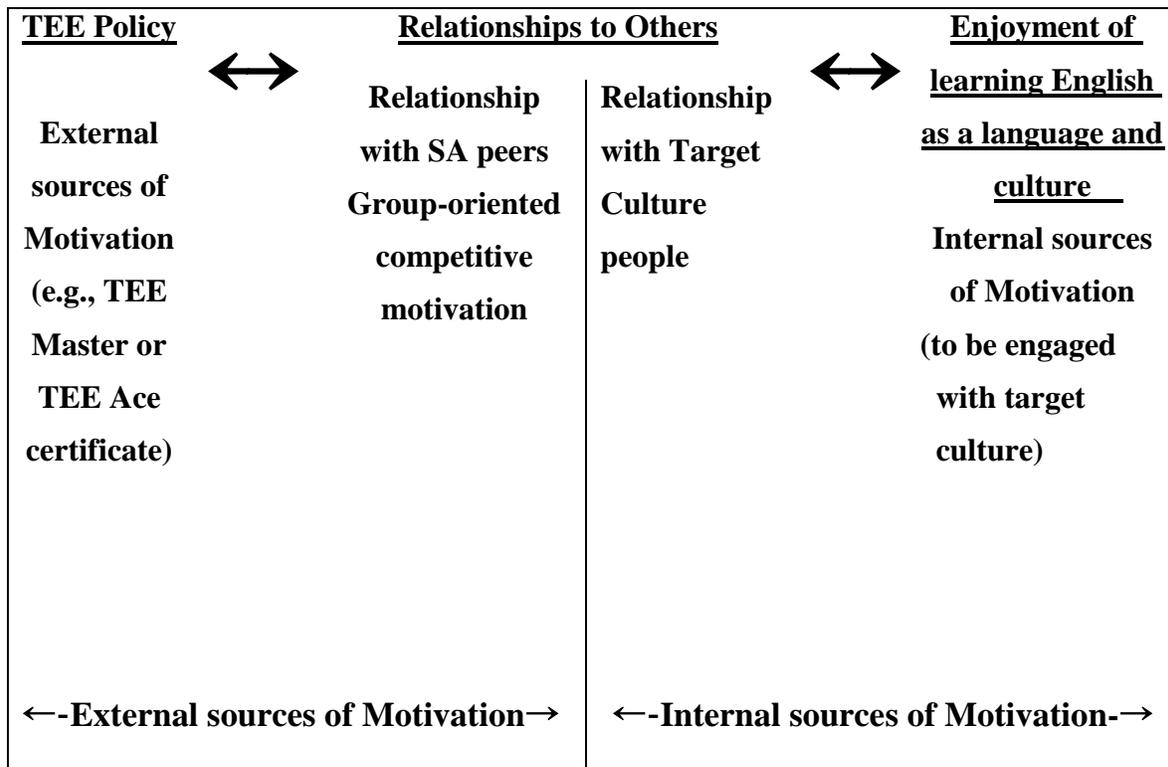
5.2.1. Increased Motivation triggered by internal and external sources

As presented in Chapter 4, the first theme that emerged from the qualitative data related to how motivation came from various internal and external sources. Most of the participants reported being highly motivated throughout the program but for different reasons. Internal and external sources (or both) reciprocally influenced the participants' motivation. Here, the different sources of motivation are discussed, and are portrayed in Figure 5.1.

As mentioned in Chapter 4.2.1, the sources of motivation were categorized into three groups; 1) participants' goals to improve their English oral proficiency simply because they wanted to, 2) the Korean Ministry of Education's TEE policy, and 3) relationships with others such as Korean study abroad peers and target culture people. The above three sources seemed to reflect a basic internal and external division of sources of motivation. The first source, participants' goals to improve their English oral proficiency simply as an intrinsic goal, can be categorized as an internal source of motivation. The second, TEE policy of the Ministry of Education, can be categorized into as an external source of motivation. The last, relationships with others, seemed to fall into both internal and external source depending on who the "other" was: Relationships

with Korean SA peers usually seemed to elicit an external source of motivation. By contrast, relationships with target culture people mostly seemed to represent an internal source of motivation.

Figure 5.1 Three main sources of Motivation in this study



5.2.1.1. Participants’ goals to improve their English simply because they want to: An internal source of motivation

The participants in this study were generally very highly motivated. This phenomenon may seem very obvious because they are all English teachers in Korea. They liked the English language itself and they enjoy teaching English, so that they chose to be English teachers. All were certified English teachers in Korea. Moreover, they applied to participate in this study-abroad teacher training program. Thus, it may seem

apparent that they would be highly motivated to learn the target language and target culture, more than participants in other study abroad programs or more than other English teachers in Korea.

For many participants, their motivation was more oriented to an appreciation of the linguistic and sociocultural aspects rather than oriented to obtain future career advancements. Because being a teacher as a job in Korea does not very directly translate into career advancement, having a high English proficiency as an English teacher in Korea does not necessarily guarantee promotion or a higher salary. Improved English proficiency can affect English teachers' self-satisfaction or a sense of achievement as English teacher at their school because their peer teachers or their students will respect their improved English.

Another reason why they may not have been very extrinsically motivated may be that there has not been any evaluation for English teachers based on their English proficiency in Korea so far. Once individuals passed the certification to become teachers in Korea, it is very rare to move to a different job. To become a principal or vice-principal in a public school, a teacher needs to work very hard at their school to receive a good evaluation from their principal. However, the evaluation is not based on their English proficiency but based on their work accomplishments.

Based on the findings from this study, the motivation of the participants were not divided into the two same broad categories of linguistic or career-oriented concerns as proposed in Kim (2007)'s longitudinal case studies of Korean English as a second language (ESL) students and recent immigrants in Toronto. Here, the participants expressed strong goals of making local friends while abroad and having more chances to

interact with local people. In order to make more local friends, they felt they needed to communicate with them well, needing to know more vocabulary and idiomatic expressions they had never heard in Korea but encountered very frequently in their stay abroad. They wanted to learn informal expressions or terms that are used in informal conversation to make local friends. Therefore, it can be argued that their motivation was more intrinsically motivated rather than extrinsic in terms of willingness to communicate and be engaged into the local community in the target culture.

In addition, many of the participants mentioned that this study abroad experience had “rekindled their fervor for learning” English and its culture, similar to what U.S. teachers of French who stayed for three weeks in France reported in Allen’s (2010) study. Some of participants in my study reported that they felt “rejuvenated” because they had stayed and studied on campus like undergraduate students in the United States.

5.1.1.2 TEE policy as one of the external sources of motivation

The TEE (Teaching English in English) policy in Korea originally developed from the TETE (Teaching English in English) and English Only Zone policy (Kim, 2000; Lee, 2002). In the 21st century, raising Global leaders with high English proficiency has been the main purpose of English education in Korea. Since the implementation of these policies, the Ministry of Education has brought in many native English speaking teachers (NEST) to primary and secondary schools. All secondary schools in Korea must have at least one NEST financially sponsored by the Ministry of Education since 2008. This policy had previously existed from 1995 to 1998. However, the world financial crisis prevented many school districts from hiring many native English speaking teachers (NEST) after 1998. As Korea became economically stable, the MOE started to bring in

many NEST from English speaking countries again. Not only were NST hired by Ministry of Education, but also many NEST were hired by private schools or private cram schools. The total number is enormous. Since NST teachers started to teach in Korean schools, a new teaching method, called ‘Co-teaching,’ has been initiated since 2008. ‘Co-teaching’ refers to Korean English teachers teaching English alongside NEST in the “English Only Zone” of the school. Initially, hiring NEST was aimed at enhancing Korean students’ English communicative proficiency. Next, it was aimed at improving Korean English teachers’ English communicative skills and TEE skills. Eventually, the MOE hoped to substitute all NEST with Korean English teachers by making all Korean English teachers to teach English in English as well as NST (Informal interview with English policy makers and specialists, 2010). Moreover, new tests to evaluate teachers’ TEE abilities were developed in 2009. The tests include a TEE Master test and TEE Ace test. Teachers who pass the teaching practicum and ‘Teaching Knowledge’ test will get a certificate, TEE M or TEE A, depending on their scores. Under this TEE policy, many participants had become more anxious and worried about teaching English in English.

As described above, the participants began to be concerned more explicitly about their TEE abilities in this SA experience. However, because the new TEE test has just been developed and has only been used since 2009, only a few of them were seriously concerned about their TEE skills. Therefore, these TEE-related policies were external sources of motivation to the participants in this study.

The findings about motivation that I have discussed can be explained by considering Figure 5.2.

**Figure 5.2. The Development of Motivation from an Activity Theory perspective
(adapted from Kim, 2007)**

Need + object → Motive + Goal + Participation → Motivation

Based on Figure 5.2 from Kim (2007)'s model of motivation from an Activity Theory perspective, the participants in this study had 'Need' to improve their English proficiency, especially, their pronunciation and oral fluency.

The motive was to "Teach English in English" (TEE) policy initiated by the Ministry of Education in Korea. Gradually, the Ministry of Education has been putting increasing emphasis on the teachers' ability to teach English in English when they evaluate English teachers' performances at their schools. In addition, TEE related tests have been developed, distinguishing English teachers into TEE Master and TEE Ace. English teachers who can teach English in English very well will receive the TEE Master certificate. Teachers who can do TEE well but not as well as TEE M teachers will get the TEE Ace certificate. To obtain those certificates, the study abroad experience can be a very important contribution because all the in-service teacher training hours (experiences) are counted and added as points to get these certificates. Getting these certificates does not guarantee promotion or higher salaries for the teachers. However, some of the teachers experienced an external motivation coming from wanting to get these certificates. Furthermore, from time to time, they became more competitive with each other, concerned about their fellow teachers' TEE performance.

5.1.1.3. Relationship with Others; Korean SA peers and target culture people

The third source of motivation identified in the data related to relationships with others including Korean study abroad peers and target culture individuals. Interestingly,

these two kinds of relationships could be categorized one as an external source of motivation with study abroad peers and the other as an internal source of motivation with target culture people.

Relationship with Korean SA peers

Affordances and Constraints to language learning in a study abroad program

Based on analysis of the qualitative data, the majority of the participants mentioned that Korean study abroad peers represented both affordances and constraints on their language learning. First, staying with Korean study abroad peers continuously seemed a constraint to some of the participants. Many stated wanting to have more authentic contact with local people. Thus, some active and enthusiastic participants audited university classes on their own between their ESL classes. They were not allowed to skip their own ESL classes. During the second week, they asked the study abroad program director if they could observe the ESL classes offered by the university ESL services, and during the third week, they were assigned to observe these ESL classes. Moreover, some of the highly motivated participants wanted to audit graduate courses in the Foreign Language Education program. They asked the professor who was teaching a course on teaching methodologies. Eventually, they had an opportunity to audit one of the graduate courses as well. Secondly, staying in the dorm with all study abroad peers was one of the constraints. They stayed they wished they had stayed with host families.

I don't want to stay all the time with my Korean peers. I don't want to follow the classes scheduled and assigned for us. I want to try authentic courses with American students. The instructors in our classes speak so slow and so easily. We can have these classes (Korean teachers with one native speaking instructor) in Korea. We flew for more than 15 hours here to learn and experience authentic cultural contact, not just repeat the same things we've already known and learned. I don't want to waste my time here with my Korean peers in speaking

broken English all together. Please let us allow to take more authentic courses.
(Trans. Interview, the 2nd week, a female teacher, advanced)

As shown in the quote below, some of the participants reported they felt more anxious when they spoke to Korea study abroad peers who had more advanced English proficiency than theirs.

I don't want to speak English with my Korean SA peers. I don't know why I use more broken English when I speak English with my peers. When I speak English with local people, I am not feeling very ashamed of my limited English because they know English is my second language. Whenever I speak English with my peers, I feel more anxious and I make more mistakes. It doesn't mean that I don't like them. I just feel uneasy in speaking English when I am with them. So, I don't want to speak English when I am around my Korean peers. I only speak up with local people or my native speaking instructor when I am alone. (Trans. Interview, the 3rd week, a female teacher, intermediate-low)

In contrast, some participants whose English proficiency was a little bit lower said that staying with their Korean study abroad peers was a facilitator of language learning. Because they were not so confident about their English, they were able to have much help and emotional support from their study abroad peers. They stated that whenever they had some difficulties in understanding what local people were saying, they felt an emotional safety zone when they were with their peers. In addition, they were able to ask each other about some unfamiliar vocabulary or idiomatic expressions. They made fewer opportunities to make contacts with local culture than participants who wanted to be away from their Korean study abroad peers and who wanted to explore the local culture on their own. However, these less proficient participants were also highly motivated to improve their English and very much enjoyed their experiences.

In sum, regardless of whether the relationship with Korean study abroad peers was facilitating or constraining of their language learning, most participants tried to speak only English with their Korean SA peers.

Group-oriented Competitiveness

Group-oriented competitiveness was another factor to make the participants externally motivated in the study abroad program. This form of competitiveness seemed originally be rooted in Korea's geographic, physical, and historical background. Unlike some large countries like the United States, India, or Russia, Korea is geographically a very small country without any natural resources like gas or oil. Korea has been situated among powerful countries, Russia, China and Japan, and has been victimized by physically powerful countries. Koreans have not wanted wars, but they have been attacked many times in their history. In order to survive in this small country without any natural resources, Koreans have worked very hard and developed a keen sense of competitiveness with each other.

Another reason can be found in that Korean society encourages a feeling of closeness, not only physically but also emotionally. Thus, they are very interested in each other and concerned about each other's opinions or views toward themselves. In line with these general Korean characteristics, the English teachers in Korea in this study were very sensitive about their study abroad peers, developing a competitive relationship with them. The participants spent all day with their peers in classes on campus. They went to the library, cafeteria, gym, and even bars after classes together, regardless of whether they liked each other or not. During class, they compared their English with their peers' English. After class, they compared their English proficiency level with their peers'

consciously or subconsciously. This comparison became a source of their motivations to improve their English proficiency.

In addition, from a Confucius background, they were competing with each other not to lose face and not to be ashamed in front of their younger teacher peers. This tendency was stronger in the more experienced or older teachers than in the less-experienced or younger teachers. Older teachers with many years of teaching experience did not want to be devalued by their younger study abroad peer teachers because of their limited English proficiency in study abroad program. Furthermore, a generational gap between older teachers and younger teachers seemed to underlie their relationship. Sometimes, for example, some of the younger participants did not share some good information on the sources of authentic contacts with local people with their older study abroad peers, and vice-versa. When they knew about some social events such as visiting an American house during weekends or joining a Super Bowl party, they were not willing to share with everyone in the program.

Relationship with individuals in the target culture

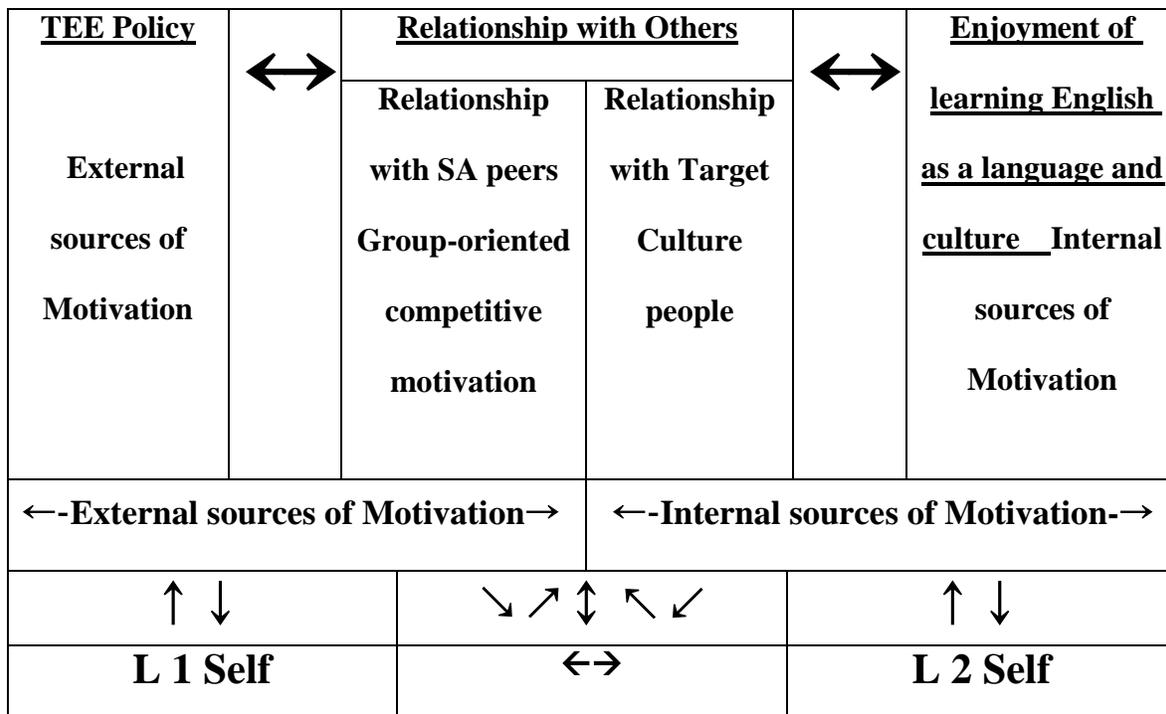
As was reported in previous studies (Allen, 2010; Kim, 2007), the participants who had negative experiences while contacting with authentic local culture were getting anxious, frustrated, and de-motivated to learn the language and culture. However, in this study, not all of the participants who had used negative experiences or constraints to language learning reported that they lost their motivation to learn. Some showed the opposite, becoming more motivated because of communication failures and cultural misunderstandings that acted as triggers to make them work harder. Even though many participants encountered some sort of misunderstandings due to their limited English

pronunciation or foreign intonations in their daily lives, some became more motivated to overcome these limitations in order to communicate better the next time or to convey their thoughts or opinions better. In this sense, their motivation may have been related to their resilience, a quality that may have protected them against the overwhelming influence of risk factors in learning the target language and new culture. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize that negative experiences with local people in a study abroad program will make participants less motivated to learn about the target culture and language. Depending on the degree and characteristics of the negative experiences and participants' individual differences, motivation can change over the course of the program.

In sum, peer pressure from their relationship with Korean study abroad peers played an important role in giving the participants various external sources of motivation. Even though they were also very intrinsically motivated, at the same time, they were very externally motivated not to fall behind their study abroad peer teachers.

Three main resources of motivations emerged from the qualitative analysis and seemed to originate in the social contexts experienced by these study abroad participants.

**Figure 5.3. Summary of various sources of Motivation
in a study abroad teacher training program for Korean teachers of English**



First, TEE related policy of Korea’s Ministry of Education, including the possibility of earning a certificate of TEE Master or TEE ACE, their principal and vice-principal evaluation, students’ evaluation of the English teachers, peer English teachers’ evaluation, and parents’ evaluation, all acted as external sources of motivation. Second, their motivation was formed out of their personal intrinsic interest to be more engaged with the target culture, including making many local friends, reading bestseller novels like *Twilight* and watching American movie such as *Avatar* without Korean sub-titles. Third, their motivation was influenced by their relationships with others, including Korean study abroad peers and target culture individuals with whom they interacted.

As shown in Figure 5.3, overall, the participants' motivation was not simply linguistically, socially, culturally, or career oriented. The internal and external sources of their motivation was more complicated, and not fixed but continuously changing with mutual influences across L1 and L2, over the course of the program.

5.2.2. Increased Awareness of the Cultural and Linguistic differences

The second theme that emerged from the qualitative data analysis was an increased awareness of the cultural and linguistic difference between their native and target culture. As described in Chapter 4, the participants were getting aware of the cultural and linguistic differences despite the four-week short term study abroad.

As Norton and Ting-Toomey (2005) mentioned, language and culture cannot be separated in language learning.

Language learning engages the identities of learners because language itself is not only a linguistic system of signs and symbols; it is also a complex social practice in which the value and meaning ascribed to the person who speaks it ... Thus, language learners are not only learning a linguistic system; they are learning a diverse set of sociocultural practices, often best understood in the context of wider relations of power. (p.115)

As they argued above, many participants became more aware of cultural and linguistic differences. Gradually, they seemed to become more understanding of sociolinguistic and sociocultural aspects of English over the course of the program.

5.2.2.1 Increased Awareness of cultural differences of the target culture

As shown in Chapter 4, many cultural differences became salient to the participants over the course of the program. Some of the cultural differences were evaluated as positive and others were seen as somewhat negative..

Americans' tendency to be kind and to smile was the most commonly mentioned cultural difference. Wherever the participants went, people smiled at them even though they did not know them. The participants valued this habit of saying "hi" with smile. Being considerate of others was also appreciated by the participants. Especially, the female participants mentioned liking the custom of having doors opened for the next person who is entering. They said, "I like living here, because here it's 'Ladies first.'" They also mentioned American "volunteerism" and "donations to the needy." At the schools they visited, they observed some classes and gave a lecture about Korean culture. Through these school visits, they had more chance to be aware of cultural differences. They saw that American teachers seemed to try to think positively and respect the students' opinions, to encourage their students with an optimistic attitude. The study abroad participants felt they had to learn these good things from the target culture. Also, they saw that American students were trying to participate in class as much as possible. The classroom atmosphere and interaction between teacher and students were very impressive to the Korean teachers.

Unlike the above examples, participants regarded some of the cultural experiences as negative aspects of American culture as similar to what Kim (1997) argued. Wastefulness, indulgence in greasy and oily food, dissimilation of various ethnic groups (flocking by ethnicity), intolerance of some local individuals and some underlying racial discrimination were the negative aspects that the participants mentioned.

Especially, whenever they felt that their interlocutors were becoming intolerant about their limited English by yawning or looking around, or when they simply interrupted their communication and changed topics, they felt disappointed and

frustrated. It made them less confident and demotivated to communicate with local people. What is worse, the negative experience that someone had written “ASIANS” on the wall in front of their rooms in their motel during their third week made the participants realize that there were still underlying racial discrimination to be encountered in America.

Through these experiences, the participants increased their sense of cultural knowledge about American culture. They came to be aware of the differences by comparing the target culture with their own culture over time. At the last week of the program, some of the participants began to evaluate these cultural differences.

The participants came to understand better the American culture they were encountering by seeing, feeling, and observing everything around them. They became more flexible about cultural differences than before. These findings were supported by the interviews I conducted with Korean English teachers who had participated in a domestic program of the same length. These teachers felt that they had become more comfortable in TEE because they had learned, practiced, and memorized “teacher talk” in English. Even though a few were interviewed about their experiences, it is interesting that they did not mention their increased awareness of cultural differences. These findings are not only supported by the interview with comparison teachers but also by existing literatures. As also reported in a study by Deardoff (2004), intercultural competence of the participants in this study had improved and was better than the domestic groups’.

One of the participants recognized that one of the positive American aspects, the openness and friendliness of Americans, was something she appreciated:

I found myself very interested that I had been trying to be more open and friendly to the U.S. people when I am speaking English rather than when I was speaking Korean to my SA Korean peers during the program. Probably, I became aware of the cultural differences between the U.S. and Korea. If I speak Korean like I do English, I would look a little bit too talkative and too proud of myself. The other way around, if I speak English like I do Korean, I would look very shy, reserved, and sometimes bored. I am trying to change the way I speak, depending on the language I speak. (Trans. Interview, the 4th week, a female teacher)

As shown in the above quote, as some of the participants became aware of cultural differences, they tried to position themselves differently depending on the context, in which they found themselves. When they spoke English, they realized that they were trying to speak like Americans, e.g., using more gestures and facial expressions than Koreans would.

Korean Teachers of English as Learners of Culture in a Study Abroad Program

In English education, teaching and learning cultural aspects in other communities or understanding other cultures has not been emphasized enough up to the present. In the foreign language education curriculum in Korea, there are few courses devoted to developing an understanding of cultural aspects of other cultures because of the characteristics of Korean society which is a racially homogenous nation.

As mentioned before, many of the participants in this study had not had ample opportunities to be immersed in a real authentic target culture. Furthermore, many of the participants had not realized the importance of understanding other cultures before this study abroad program.

Many of the participants were very excited to learn not only authentic linguistic forms in the real contexts but also authentic cultural aspects as well. They asked many

questions about all kinds of cultural aspects including daily living, education, politics, and history. Many of them seemed very sensitive to capture any cultural differences quickly compared to general study abroad participants. These participants were trying to record the cultural differences they had learned and noticed during this program. Everywhere they went seemed their classroom. Whomever they talked with looked like their instructors and teachers. At all times they seemed to want to learn something related to the target culture. They were always carrying little notebooks in which they wrote what they found very interesting culturally as well as linguistically. They were very proactive to learn as much as they could during their stay abroad. They looked like they did not want to lose a second in learning something new.

However, in their actual classrooms, their conversation was limited to interacting only with the native speaker instructors. They wanted to see the real target world. Some of the participants tried to audit some graduate courses. In addition, some of them asked the study abroad program director to change their schedule. They asked him permission to observe many other schools' classrooms. Some of them visited real American houses to watch the Super bowl football game together. One reason they went to local bars almost every night was that they wanted to have more contacts with local people as much as possible.

As learners of culture, participants in this study were very eager to learn something related to culture and language. They were also trying to collect some objects and artifacts related to the target culture such as signs to show to their students in Korea. Compared to general study abroad participants' target language proficiency, the teachers' target language proficiency was very high. Unlike general study abroad participants'

objectives, their objective of this study abroad program was changed from improving their linguistic skills at the beginning of this program to expanding their cultural knowledge.

Some degree of increased self-awareness of “Koreanness”

As the participants increased their knowledge of the target culture and became more aware of cultural differences, they also became more aware of their Koreanness. Their contacts with local people were often focused on exchanging notes about cultural differences between their culture and the target culture. In addition, through their school visits, most of them gave presentations to the students in the local town about Korean students or Korean education system. As these experiences accumulated, the participants became more aware of their “Koreanness.” When they were in Korea, they had few chances to reflect on their nationality or their own culture. When they were abroad, however, they had to explain their home culture in their contacts with local people. Otherwise, they would have had few topics of conversation with new friends in the target culture. They had many chances to reflect on their own culture by communicating with local people. A few of the participants, interestingly, mentioned that they became more proud of their “Koreanness” whenever they saw some American individuals using Korean companies’ cell phones or PDP, T.V.s, or Korean cars. They did not expect that they would see many Korean products being used in America. Some of the participants stated that they thought Korea was falling behind the United States but not in every area. They showed that they became more confident in being Korean after these experiences of being abroad. This finding seems to be in line with what Walker de Felix and Cavazos Pena (1992) found in their study of the impact of a 4-week program in Mexico on 16

bilingual heritage language teachers. The participants in Mexico reported that their self-confidence had increased and that they had a better understanding of their own background as Hispanics born in the United States.

Overall, many of the participants seemed to be able to notice the differences between the target culture and their own culture but not in great detail due to time constraints. Even though their awareness of cultural differences was not very broad or deep, as some of the participants stated, *“I vaguely came to understand this target culture more than before over this program,”* at the end of the program, their appreciation of cultural differences was more than for the participants in the domestic immersion teacher training program.

In sum, participants were able to expand their knowledge of cultural practices and products, especially related to the local region similar to what was reported by American teachers of French in Allen’s (2010) study.

5.2.2.2 Increased awareness of linguistic differences of target language

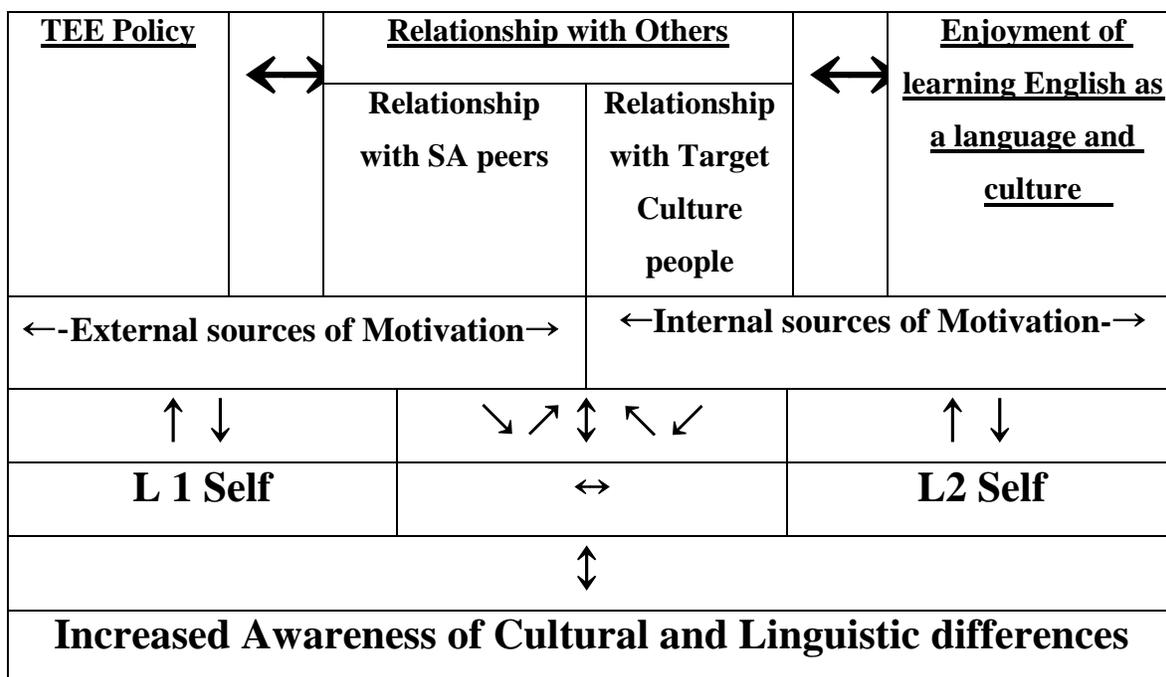
The participants were all foreign language teachers. They were very sensitive not only of cultural but also linguistic differences between Korean and English.

As presented in Chapter 4, their awareness of linguistic differences including of stress, intonation patterns, structural patterns, and pragmatics increased over the four week program. These findings are in line with many previous findings (Freed, 1995b; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Juan-Garau & Perez-Vidal, 2007; Masumara, 2007; Taguchi, 2008). The finding that the participants had increased their awareness of linguistic differences over the program was accompanied by improved quantitative assessments of

language skills. As they became aware of phonemic differences, they seemed to be trying to speak more accurately. Thus, their speaking was getting better. Consequently, their listening skills improved by virtue of their increased awareness of stress and intonation differences. Likewise, the awareness of pragmatics differences increased by virtue of their increased awareness of cultural differences.

In sum, the participants were able to increase cultural knowledge of the target culture and improve their linguistic competences, especially oral proficiency and pragmatics. These findings are supported by Bahktin's (1981) argument that language and culture cannot be separated. Through interactions with local people, school visits, and field trips, the participants were able to extend their ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development), and increase their intercultural competence (Deardoff, 2004). In comparison with the domestic groups, the participants experienced authentic contacts with local cultures and learned by doing and exploring. Eventually, some of the participants were able to position themselves into a community of practice of English speakers (Kinging, 2009). These experiences cannot be compared with what the domestic groups experienced.

**Figure 5.4. Increased Awareness of Cultural and Linguistic differences
in various sources of Motivation**



5.2.3 Resistance to the Dominant Culture as represented by native English speaking instructors

As presented in Chapter 4.2.3, most participants developed a feeling of resistance to the dominant culture as represented by their native English speaking instructors. Here, three important related theories regarding how and why are discussed: first, how the participants were “positioned in community of practice”; second, why the participants were positioned in the particular way they were; and third, other possible reasons why this happened.

5.2.3.1 Positioned as little kids not as English teachers of Korea

In L1, I am a professional English teacher in Korea with many teaching experiences. But in L2, my English proficiency is just at an elementary level. I am treated just like a little kid. I am so sad and frustrated when I had class with NES instructors. (Trans. Interview, the 4th week, a male teacher)

As shown in the above quote, many participants (more than a majority) started to feel like the teacher towards the end of the four week program.

*Because of her **condescending attitude** towards us, I was **frustrated and less motivated** to learn language and culture.* (Trans. Interview, the last day of the program, a female teacher)

*We didn't come here just to follow the native English speaker instructor's pronunciation. We know her pronunciation and intonation is good because English is her first language. In this global era, English is a **global language**. We are teaching English as a global language. American pronunciation is not the perfect for people all over the world.* (Trans. Interview, the last day of the program, a female teacher)

As shown in the above two quotes, the participants felt positioned in their community of practice, the ESL classes in the program, as little kids who are learning English. This was true even though they already knew theories of phonology, phonetics, and syntax, and were quite knowledgeable about second and foreign language teaching methodologies. Because the majority had started to learn English as a foreign language in Korea when they were 13 years old, and because they had not had many chances to practice and use English verbally, their pronunciation and intonation when they spoke English sounded very foreign. Some of them had the goal of getting rid of their foreign accent but they came to realize that it would be difficult to do that. They felt that the most important thing was to express their opinions and discuss what they wanted to do in a proper way depending on context. However, they did not appreciate being positioned as such novices in the community of practice. Similar to what Wang (2010) reported, the

participants seemed to feel a sense of inferiority, and positioned themselves as “English Language Learners,” which consequently led to a higher anxiety level, frustration, and low self-confidence.

Some previous studies have reported similar examples, but most were related to gender or national identity issues in study abroad or stay abroad (Churchill, 2005; Kinginger, 2008; Polanyi, 1995; Talburt & Stewart, 1999). Participants in study abroad program can sometimes choose to position themselves with respect to particular communities they wished to join (Kinger, 2010). However, the participants in this study were positioned as children or as EFL students by the NES instructors. The participants’ sociocultural background led them to see themselves as well-trained and self-regulated English teachers who wanted to improve their oral skills. The majority of them thought that the pronunciation class was important for them. However, they did not like the way the NES instructors ‘positioned’ them during the class. Because the participants did not have host families like many other participants in previous studies, the NES instructors played an important role for them, like host families. As many studies on language socialization and identity in study abroad programs have reported, how the participants positioned themselves into the new community of practice influenced their experiences in the program such as personal, cultural, and linguistic growth, and reconstruction of their identity depending on their sociocultural histories. To the participants in this study, being positioning as little kids or little students made them more frustrated and less motivated than being positioned as equals, as the English teachers they wanted to be. They wanted to position themselves as similar knowledgeable

teachers with much teaching experience who needed to practice and improve English communicative skills.

This resistance was similar to previous reports (Pellegrino, 2005; Wang, 2010) that study abroad participants could be unjustly perceived by host nationals as intellectually inferior in the study abroad contexts, resulting in lowered self-esteem and frustration.

There is another way of interpreting the feeling of being positioned “as little kids” in the study abroad program. Possibly, some of the participants who felt strongly resistant to “being positioned as little English language learners” may have had too much sense of their dignity as Korea teachers of English.

When I use my first language, I can enjoy my dignity as knowledgeable English teacher. However, the moment I switch into English in front of my students, I degrade to a weak, vulnerable position that doesn't guarantee as much respect from the same students as otherwise I would enjoy. (Daily Journal entry, the 4th week, a male teacher)

As the participant stated above, he could not enjoy the dignity to which he was accustomed as a knowledgeable English teacher when communicating with native English speaking instructors in class. How the participants viewed themselves in this study abroad situation was interesting to examine. Some of the participants wanted to get “respect” and felt they deserved “respect” because they were teachers. As Jackson (2010) claimed, there should have been “mutual respect” between the native English speaking instructors and the participants. Without it, the participants were not ready to adjust (fit in) themselves into the new cultural context of being language learners in an ESL program.

5.2.3.2 Lack of Mutual Understanding and Engagement (Lack of understanding the ‘Other’)

One of the reasons for the participants’ disposition toward the NES instructors can be found in the lack of mutual understanding between them. The NES instructors were instructors who had been very popular with many international students before, including many EFL Korean and Mexican teachers of English. They applied the same teaching method to the study’s participants. However, this group’s English proficiency was more advanced compared to previous groups. The interesting point in the participants’ sociocultural history was that the resistance to the dominant culture was only made by participants from Group 2 whose English proficiency was Intermediate-high and Group 3 whose English proficiency was Advanced level (ACTFL, 1999). None of the Group 1 participants whose English proficiency was intermediate-low mentioned these thoughts of resistance. Also, the pilot study group whose English proficiency was not as high as that of the present groups also did not report such resistance. Before this research, I had conducted two pilot studies were conducted twice in 2009 winter and in 2009 summer. Two similar themes emerged from these earlier groups. First, they were highly motivated during the whole study abroad program. Second, they became more familiar with cultural and linguistic differences. However, none made comments that represented the third theme, resistance to the dominant culture as represented by the native speaker instructor, even though their program included exactly the same courses and same instructors. Thus, these results support the theory that participants’ different sociocultural history influenced the different experiences they had in the study abroad program, a difference in many of my participants’ sociocultural history that was different from that of previous

participants and not noticed by the native English speaking instructors who did not understand the participants' needs.

The problem was not only that NES instructors did not understand the participants' needs and desires. It was also that the participants did not have enough understanding of the dominant culture. As pointed out in Chapter 4, the participants were not allowed to take other courses on the campus other than the EFL classes scheduled for them. The participants had classes from 9 to 5 everyday with the same NES instructors. After class, they had many assignments to do.

This lack of understanding of the target culture may have led the participants to resist their native English speaking instructors. If the participants had had more authentic contacts with the local people, they would have been more open to the differences of others and tried to be more understanding of others including the native English speaking instructors. Furthermore, this may be explained by the participants' lack of intercultural competence which will be discussed in the next section.

5.2.3.3 Liminality: Dynamics in-betweenness

Through my ethnographic investigation, the participants showed they had undergone a period of border crossing (Jackson, 2008; Ting-Toomey, 1999, 2005) or liminality what Jackson (2008) called "a rite of passage in which the participants cross boundaries and transformed in terms of their social status or identity" (p.53).

The participants in this study were separated from their home social groups (English teachers in Korea) and were undergoing a period in which they were "between" or in a state of "in-betweenness".

The attributes of liminality or liminal personae ('threshold people') are necessarily ambiguous, since this condition and these persons elude or slip through the network of classifications that normally locate states and positions in cultural space. Liminal entities are neither here nor there; they are betwixt and between the positions assigned and arrayed by law, custom, convention, and ceremonial. (Turner, 1969, p.95)

Even though they were expending much effort to fit in the new culture, the community of second or foreign language teachers in the United States, they perceived that local people regarded them as “outsiders” or “foreigner”. Similar to Elsa’s journey in Jackson’s (2008) study, the participants felt between “foreign language teachers” and “foreign language learners” like ELLs (English language learners) in the new community of practice.

*Whenever I **am trying to speak better and better**, the native English speakers or other local people are **looking at me so strangely** and starting to look around for others or yawning. It makes me very frustrated. (Trans. Interview with a Female teacher)*

Once in the target culture, their identity as English teachers in Korea was misaligned. Unlike many other previous participants in study abroad programs, the participants did not stay with local host families. Instead, as described in the previous chapter, except for arranged school visits, the participants stayed all day, from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. on campus, which meant they were on campus with native English speaking instructors. Thus, the native English speaking instructors took the place not only of official teachers but also of unofficial host family or host friends in their new community of practice.

*Here in the study abroad program I am **neither an English teacher nor an English language learner**. (Trans. Interview at the last week with a male teacher)*

During this uncertain time (liminal stage), the participants had neither one status nor the other. They felt they had lost their status as English teacher by going abroad. “In-betweenness” of identity alignment in their border or language crossings was not revealed in all of the participants’ daily journal entries or interviews, even though many of them reported that they felt resistance to the condescending attitude of the native English speaking instructors. However, for some particularly sensitive participants, their status in the study abroad program seemed to emphasize this feeling of in-betweenness.

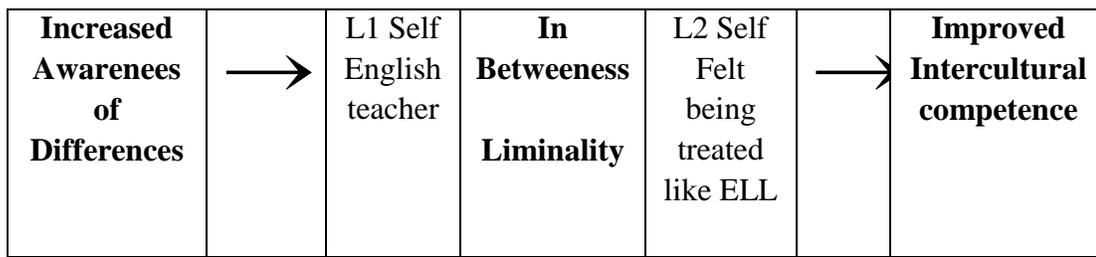
Similar to what Wang (2010) argued, the participants’ “identity went through a complex and unstable process as the participants continued to come in contact with the target language and target culture” (p. 58). This unstable stage and constant adjustments are not unusual for study abroad contexts. “In-betweenness” in this study seemed to be similar to learners who are “repositioning” themselves between the native culture and the target culture.

As Ting-Toomey (1999) mentioned, newcomers must “learn to experiment and reinvent new ways of coping, thinking, feeling, and behaving on a daily basis. The costs of such internal and external struggles and constant reinvention can include everything from identity rejection to identity loss”(p.258). Newcomers in this study experienced such internal and external struggles and were transformed gradually over the program. As Trubshaw (2001) argued, newcomers may gradually assume a new social status in the final or postliminal stage such as becoming full-fledged members of the host community. A few of the participants in this study seemed to acquire a new social status near the end of the program but this was true of only a few due to the brevity of the program. However, many participants experienced a journey from feeling uncomfortable, to feeling

in between, to becoming more comfortable or familiar with the host community, even though they were not full-fledged members.

The best thing I got here is that I feel more comfortable with people different culture. This will help me teach students how to understand and communicate with people from different cultures. I hope this period of time in here will be the turning-point of my life to change my life for the better. (Daily journal entry at the last week, a male teacher)

Figure 5.5. Summary of changes in intercultural competencies among participants



As presented in Table 5, as the program progressed, the participants seemed to go through stages, from an increased awareness of differences, to in-betweenness, and to greater intercultural competence.

One other possibility is that the native English speaking instructors were under the pressure of showing improvement in just four weeks. Generally, previous Korean learners have not been accustomed to discussing or negotiating some ideas with their instructors in class. Sometimes, Korean learners simply wanted to learn what they needed to improve or learn from their instructors in a straightforward way, similar to what the native English speaking instructors did in this study. So, the instructors were trying to teach more in a traditional direct than usual. However, the participants here were different from the previous groups in terms of their English proficiency, maturity, and

motivation. The native English instructors may have lacked knowledge or notice of these different characteristics in advance and may have been pressured to cover many things for the participants due to the brevity of time. The instructors' old views about Korean English learners may also not have been broad enough to accept this group's differences.

The second possibility is that the participants may have felt ridiculed by their native English speaking instructors. Because of their Confucius background, the participants may have thought that their dignity as a teacher should not be affronted. So, they may have misinterpreted their instructors' straightforward teaching manners and have felt that they had lost face, and that their dignity as a teacher had been questioned. Such feelings may have come about because the participants were not fully prepared (fully fledged) to take on a role as a learner abroad. Moreover, these feelings can imply that the participants' intercultural sensitivity was still very much in an ethnocentric stage including denial and defense. This explanation can be supported by Wang's (2010) argument that resistance can be caused by "identity factors such as ethnocentrism, a sense of inferiority, a sense of superiority, or a perception of being marginalized" (p. 58).

As this theme began to emerge and I came to see the similarity between one of the main themes "resistance to the target culture" in this study and previously reported findings, I questioned if this experience would be true of only this particular study abroad group or would also be experienced by other study abroad groups who went to other regions of the United States or to England, for example. I interviewed some supervisors who had been in charge of study abroad teacher programs in the same school district. One of them mentioned that other participants in other study abroad programs had sometimes shown similar resistance to the target culture as represented by native speaker English

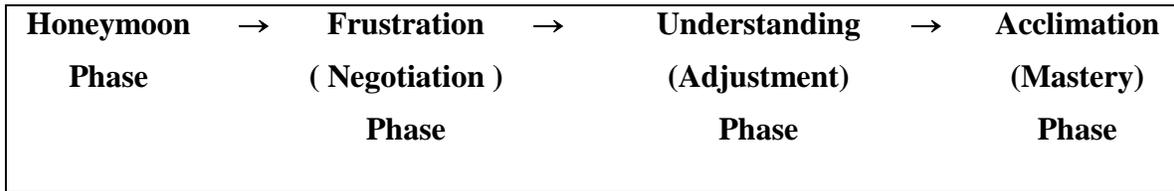
instructors. She also mentioned other problems of study abroad programs. In her view, generally, the study abroad programs had been taken care of by local ESL programs. Also, instructors tended to treat participants as typical English Language learners. The possible reason why a similar resistance was reported may not have been because of the instructors but because of the program itself. Local ESL programs were perhaps not the best institutes for in-service foreign language teacher programs even though they can be the best place for general language learners.

In sum, the third theme that emerged from the qualitative data provides many insights. First, there was not a mutual understanding between the participants and native English speaking instructors. Second, the participants were still going through interculturally ethnocentric stages so that they were not fully prepared to take on the role as a learner and felt their dignity was affronted. Third, they were experiencing liminality, which refers to “in-betweenness”, similar to what many newcomers are experiencing when they enter new cultures or cross a border.

5.2.4. Culture Shock (critical incidents, socio pragmatic failures, and perceived racism)

The main themes that emerged from the participants’ experiences in this study abroad program were their increased motivation, increased awareness of differences, and resistance to the dominant culture. These patterns and themes were similar to the psychological symptoms that many researchers have proposed when describing the transition of newcomers into a culture (Bennett, 1998; Paige, 1993; Rhinesmith, 1975).

Figure 5.6. Process of dealing with cultural shock according to Adler (1975)



As shown in Figure 5.6, the participants in this study seemed to experience the stages of Adler’s (1975) culture shock model. Approximately 90% of the participants seemed to experience the first *Honeymoon* stage and the second *Frustration* stage. From the very first day, all of the participants were very excited at encountering new cultures and new places. They were very eager to explore the ‘Newness’ like people in the Honeymoon stage. As the program progressed, they had more authentic contacts with local people, local customs, and cultures. These were sometimes pleasant and interesting experiences but not always. Sometimes, they felt frustrated with these experiences, disappointed at their disposition, and longing for their lives at home. They slowly experienced shock at the new culture and new places. Even though there are no fixed symptoms of culture shock and each person was affected differently by their culture shock depending on their sociocultural history, the emotional feelings such as excitement, anxiety, and frustration that the participants in this study reported were very similar to those described in the Culture Shock model (Adler, 1975).

During the first and second weeks, the participants showed much curiosity and excitement in the new culture like tourists. However, their personal basic identity remained rooted in the back-home setting. From the middle of the second week or early part of the third week, they seemed to show more feelings of being overwhelmed by the

new culture's requirements. They started to visit secondary schools close in city where their study abroad program took place. They visited schools in pairs, not individually or as a whole group. Before such visits, they had to prepare some lessons about Korean culture and education. These visits caused some because they had never presented or taught American students. However, they were very satisfied with their experiences with the students in the public schools they visited. What is more, they very much appreciated these visits to the schools.

However, they felt frustrated whenever local people misunderstood them. When they went grocery shopping, one of them reported asking "where are eggs?" The clerk could not understand because of the pronunciation of the word. Distinguishing the vowel with /æ / is hard for Koreans, because /e/ sound is not used very often in Korean. When they went out to eat, they often could not understand what the waiter was asking. One very interesting example was when the clerk in the store asked them, "Is everything OK?" One of the male participants could not understand what the clerk was asking. He was so curious about that. So, he asked again, "Could you say that again a little bit slowly?" Even though asking this kind of question made him look stupid and dumb, he wanted to know why all the clerks so often use such an expression. After he got the answer, he was a little bit frustrated that he could not even understand such an easy sentence. These are typical examples of the experiences that can occur at the frustration stage, leading the participants to show negative feelings and attitude towards the new culture. When they show 'Resistance to the dominant culture presented by the native speaker instructor, they might experience the 'Frustration' stage as well. In addition,

when they were bored at the American food prepared by the University's dormitory cafeteria always was at the 'Frustration' phase.

Only a few of the participants showed evidence of the third phase, *Understanding* and *Adjustment*. When one male teacher explained how he was treated like an elementary school child by the native speaking instructor, another male teacher said, "She was just being humorous for us." The lesson about the pronunciation she taught was also not a problem to this male teacher. Moreover, he said, "My English pronunciation and intonation became better because of her lessons". Other participants were complaining about the lesson she taught, because she kept emphasizing only an American pronunciation. In addition, participants interpreted her as saying that an American way of thinking was better than Korean thinking in general, the primary reason many participants developed an attitude of resistance to the dominant culture. However, the one male participant's opinion was different from the others, suggesting that he had entered *understanding* stage because he was trying to understand the "Others" and adjust himself into the new community of practice.

In general, this four-week study abroad program was too brief for the participants to reach the last Assimilation phase (see Table 5.1) However, it seemed that the participants had experienced the *Honeymoon* stage, on what I want to call a "*Roman Holiday*" stage because many of the participants felt that they had escaped their normal everyday chores and daily school routine in Korea. They also seemed to experience the *Frustration* stage and a few, the *Understanding* stage, over the four-week study abroad program.

Table 5.1. Culture Shock stages and symptoms proposed by Adler in 1975

Stage	Typical symptom of each stage
Honeymoon Stage (Roman Holiday)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excitement and euphoria • General anticipation of everything that you are about to experience • Everything and everyone you encounter is new and many times exciting • You'll probably be eager to learn the language spoken in your host country
Frustration stage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some of your initial excitement dissipates • Feelings of anxiety, anger, and homesickness creep in • You might reject your new environment and begin to have a lack of interest in your new surroundings • You'll become frustrated with trying to speak a foreign language
Understanding stage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You become more familiar with the culture, people, food and language of your host country • You will have made friends • You become less homesick • You'll be more comfortable with speaking and listening to the language spoken in your host country • You become more comfortable and relaxed in your new environment • You better handle the situations you previously found frustrating
Assimilation stage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You'll be able to compare the good and bad of your host country with the good and bad of your home country • You feel less like a foreigner and more like your host country is your second home • You laugh about things that frustrated you at earlier stages of cultural shock

5.2.5 Increased Intercultural Competences (Developments of Intercultural sensitivity)

As described in Chapter 4, the participants became more aware of cultural and linguistic differences over the course of the program. Their increased awareness of differences seemed to be explained by some intercultural competence and intercultural sensitivity models. One of the most widely accepted model is Byram's (2002) intercultural communicative competence model, and it acted as the foundation for assessing the participants' intercultural communicative competence (Jackson, 2010). Second, Bennett's (1993) developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (DMIS) is also useful in discussing the participants' intercultural sensitivity.

5.2.5.1. Increased Intercultural Communicative Competence

Byram's (2002) construct of intercultural communicative competence has had a critical impact on views of the need for an integration of culture into L2 teaching. In this view, intercultural communication competence is composed of five components: intercultural attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness. The participants in this study seemed to developing their intercultural attitude and knowledge, which are considered prerequisites for successful intercultural competence (Jackson, 2010). Even before the study abroad program, the participants showed curiosity and openness toward their upcoming experience. In addition, they developed knowledge of their own culture as well as of the target culture during the program. The next three components of Byram's (2002) model are considered essential features of successful communication across cultures and languages. The participants seemed to develop the skills of interpreting and relating and

skills of discovery and interaction, according to their daily entries after the successful school visits and their presentation about Korean culture to the target culture public school students and teachers. Additionally, they became more able to relate the new culture to their own culture while they were interacting with some local native speakers at social events after class. Eventually, some of the participants showed they had developed critical cultural awareness, which is the final component of Byram's (2002) intercultural communicative competence. As discussed in Chapter 4, some of the participants evaluated the pros and cons of the target culture. They respected the positive aspects such as kindness, volunteerism, and openness, as well as negative aspects such as wastefulness and dissimulation of multi-ethnic groups. They did not simply compare the two cultures but also evaluated critically these two cultures. Eventually, they were able to see their own culture systems from an outsider's perspective. In spite of some individual differences in developing intercultural communicative competence, overall, the participants seemed to have grown in this aspect over the course of the program.

5.2.5.2. Developmental Process of Intercultural Sensitivity

Another widely accepted model in the field of intercultural communication is the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity by Bennett (1993). This model is composed of two broad aspects: ethnocentrism, which is "the worldview of one's own is central to all reality" (p.30) and the other is Ethnorelativism, which is a greater recognition and acceptance of differences such as adaptation and integration.

It is difficult to conclude that the participants developed their intercultural sensitivity by moving from an ethnocentric to an ethnorelative stage. Some of them, however, like the case studies in Jackson (2010), were able to discover cross-cultural

differences and to try to adjust their mindset and apply new behaviors to help them communicate more effectively and appropriately across cultures. Based on her daily entry, one female teacher wrote that she realized that she changed her voice, tone, and facial expressions when she spoke English, the target language. In addition, after some of the participants were aware of the pragmatic differences between the two cultures, they began to use appropriate pragmatics when communicating with the local people.

As participants garnered more increased awareness of the cultural and linguistic differences over the course of this program, many of the participants seemed to be more aware of cultural diversity and even appreciate the diversity. This finding is similar to what Barfield (1994) found that foreign language teachers in a study abroad teacher training program became more aware of diversity in their classrooms and communities.

In sum, some of the participants stayed in their ethnocentric stage and others moved closer to the ethnorelative stage by the end of the program. Likewise, individual participants' development of intercultural sensitivity differed across the program. For those who made the most progress, however, the developmental process of intercultural sensitivity may have offered them the chance to reconstruct their identity.

Dynamic nature of language learning experiences in a study abroad program

In sum, this study was aimed at investigating the participants' journey in their study abroad program quantitatively as well as qualitatively. Four main themes emerged from the qualitative data: 1) the participants reported on various sources of motivation, 2) they experienced an increased awareness of cultural and linguistic differences, 3) they reported resistance to the dominant culture as represented by native English speaking instructors, and 4) they experienced improved intercultural sensitivity. All these themes

were discussed in light of pre-existing theories and findings. Unlike many previous studies' typical participants, the participants in this study, mature Korean teachers of English, had experiences that differed substantially from what has been reported in other studies or from my own pilot studies. They had various internal and external sources of motivation, which were not fixed or static but more reciprocally influencing each other. Gradually, over the program, they became more aware of many cultural and linguistic differences between two cultures and languages. They had some experience with culture shock stages and liminal stages such as in-betweenness, in which they experienced they were neither English language teachers nor English language learners. Eventually, however, some of the participants who showed strong resistance to the dominant culture reported coming to appreciate the "others" close to the end of the program. They reported being more comfortable with multicultural differences of others. Some of the participants showed that their intercultural sensitivity changed from an ethnocentric to an ethnorelative stage over the course of the program. Findings from my analysis of their interviews and daily journal entries were confirmed with interviews with a few participants after the end of the study abroad program. In addition, these findings were compared to findings from informal interviews with a few participants in a domestic immersion programs that showed stark differences from the study abroad participants' experiences.

Overall, the participants were very motivated before this study abroad and while in the study abroad. As the study abroad program progressed on, some positive and negative experiences occurred to them during in this authentic contact with the local culture. During the last week, many participants were very tired due to the very full

schedule, and more than half of the participants mentioned that their native speaking instructors had a condescending attitude toward them and they felt they were insulted by them. Their motivation fluctuated throughout the program depending on their experiences. However, they said they were nevertheless motivated and came to know better how to maintain their English even after this study abroad program.

I will miss the time I spent for four weeks in the U.S. It was like my “Roman Holiday”. I was so tired of my routine daily life. So, I applied to attend the study abroad teacher training program. During the program, sometimes I was frustrated because I could not improve my oral proficiency very quickly. I complained about the food here. But, I didn’t need to worry about my students, my school, and the chores at my home. I will miss my experience here. Also, I haven’t improved my English a lot. But now, I know how American people speak and write. I will try to maintain my English after I go back home. I became more confident in my English. (Trans. Interview, the 4th week, a female teacher)

Through these experiences, I want to suggest adding more detailed stages and interactions to pre-existing model. Several participants experienced an in-betweenness while they were approaching the assimilation or acculturation stage on the intercultural sensitivity continuum.

Getting disappointed at myself. I had an illusion or myth that my oral communication skills will become just like native speakers after this program. That is not true. I am so sad and frustrated. (Daily entry journal, the 4th week, a female teacher)

As reflected in the above examples, more than half of the participants who mentioned some negative feelings about the target culture said that they had not improved as much as these participants who did not mention about the negative comments about their experiences while studying abroad.

Some of the teachers who had a domestic immersion program were interviewed. They did not seem to become more aware of cultural differences as much as the participants in the study abroad program.

As Kramersch (1993) and Nunan and Choi (2010) argued, learning another language is not just memorizing the grammar or words but being situated in the culture which another language is used. Learning another language is learning the way others think and understand others. So, learning another language and culture should be constituted by interaction with people. Learning another language cannot be considered without understanding the culture and interaction in the culture.

Language is only one of many semiotic systems with which learners make sense of the world expressed in a different language. The acquisition of another language is not an act of disembodied cognition, but is the situated, spatially and temporally anchored, co-construction of meaning between teachers and learners who each carry with them their own history of experience with language and communication. Culture is not one worldview, shared by all the members of a national speech community, it is multifarious, changing, and more often than not conflictual. (Kramersch, 2004, p. 255)

In line with Kramersch (2004) and Nunan and Choi (2010), the study abroad program was aimed at helping participants learn a foreign language in the target culture. While studying abroad, the participants explored many cultural and linguistic differences and experienced culture shock and border crossing experiences similar to in-betweenness. Through these experiences, they became not only more linguistically but also more interculturally competent through the program.

5.3. Limitations

Although I mentioned some limitations of the study in Chapter 3, here I briefly discuss additional limitations in this section.

First, there were some limitations in terms of the size of the participants group, their characteristics, and the place of their study abroad. The participants were all English

teachers who were highly motivated compared to normal teachers. In addition, this study abroad took place in a research-centered university in the southwest of the United States. The experiences the participants had (e.g., cultural aspects they found interesting) or findings of this study must have been influenced by the place where they were staying. Furthermore, the size of the group for quantitative analysis was not large enough. Moreover, the subjects of this study were Korean teachers of English who are teaching in the big province surrounding the capital city of Korea. So, the results and findings cannot be generalized to other Korean teachers of English who are teaching in other areas.

A second limitation may be found in the fact that there was no control group with which to compare the results of the pretest and posttest scores on the listening, structure, reading, speaking, and writing measure. Thus, it is difficult to argue the effects of this study abroad teacher training program on the participants' target language proficiency, because their time abroad and the participants' maturity over the program instead of this teacher training program itself could have been factors influencing the results.

Third, the oral interview and writing samples of the pretest and the posttest were evaluated by the native English speaking instructors who taught the participants in the program. Even though they were well-qualified instructors and they used well-organized assessment rubrics, the native English speaking instructors may have been biased to see their students' performances as better at the end of the program because they may have wanted to show progress as a result of the program.

Fourth, significant differences between pretest and posttest scores may have been influenced by other physical factors. The participants took their pretests on the first day

of the study abroad program, on the first day when they were still suffering from jetlag and may not have been well adjusted to time in the new culture. Thus, their pretest scores may not have been as good as they would have been under other circumstances. So, this may be one possible explanation why their pretest scores were significantly different from their posttest scores.

Last, one of the major challenges of this ethnographic research was how to keep a balance between “emic” (insider’s) and “etic” (outsider’s) perspective in this study, similar to Jackson’s warning (2008). I tried to keep an equal balance between the insider and outsider perspectives. However, I may have been biased because I was too immersed in this study abroad program as a researcher, as a friend to the participants, and as a colleague to the native English speaking instructors.

5.4. Implications

This study provides many implications in terms of theory and method for future study abroad researchers. Also, it provides many pedagogical and policy implications for future study abroad participants, instructors, and policy makers.

5.4.1 Theoretical Implications

From a sociocultural perspective, this study was conducted to examine what was happening and how it happened in the study abroad program. By considering the whole picture of study abroad, I tried to relate my findings to previous theories. I could not develop my own theory, but I could confirm some related theories through my analysis.

Many of my findings were discussed by relating them to previous theories or arguments by Vygotsky (1978), Kramsch (1999), and Ting-Toomey (1999, 2005). The liminality (in-betweeness), identity misalignment, enhanced intercultural communicative skills and awareness of Self and Other were drawn from the data.

I also applied the typical culture shock theory, proposed by several previous researchers to explain my findings. I found more complicated interactions and reciprocal influences among the four stages of culture shock.

Against the backdrop of language ideology in Korea, including the “hot fever for English education,” this study was conducted to explain what happened in the participants’ study abroad by relating their experiences to previous theories and findings.

Previous studies have investigated what happened and how it happened in similar contexts. However, few studies have examined foreign language teachers in a study abroad program. Only a few studies have been conducted on study abroad teacher training programs. Especially, many studies have focused on American students or teachers who had been abroad for a semester or longer. This study provides some theoretical implications for researchers interested in motivation during a study abroad program, or in culture shock theories.

5.4.2 Methodological Implications

This study was conducted with various kinds of research methods to investigate the foreign language study abroad program more in depth. I used ethnographic observation and data collection to obtain a more in-depth program description and to investigate about how, when, where, and what the participants experienced. For

trustworthiness, I used the triangulation, including member checking to make sure whether what I interpreted was in line with what the participants had meant. What I captured and portrayed was aligned with what the participants meant. To measure the validity of the qualitative data, I met some of the Korean teachers 6 months later, showed them my findings, and asked them if these were similar to what they remembered of their experience.

This mixed method using both quantitative and qualitative methods was well designed for investigating the study abroad program with its dynamic and intertwined interactions between participants and local people. Many voices of participants quoted in this study provide insights for study abroad teacher training programs in a way that quantitative research cannot.

5.4.3 Pedagogical Implications

As shown in the previous chapters, this study provides many pedagogical implications for foreign or second language teacher training program directors, or instructors, or program coordinators.

From a sociocultural perspective, this study provides many pedagogical insights to program directors or coordinators, and even to current or future ESL teachers. When they teach international students who are studying abroad, their affect and cultural and linguistic development will be different from those of immigrants. Therefore, current or future ESL teachers should notice to what extent their international students develop culturally and linguistically. More broadly, teachers or professors who have many

international students would benefit from noticing that their international students may be different from immigrant students or their native English speaking students.

As shown in Chapter 4, the participants' identity reconstruction and their affect during their study abroad should be considered in light of their sociocultural backgrounds. Especially, when the participants are adults like the participants in this study, they are likely to have different experiences than younger learners.

As found from the qualitative data, before sending the teachers abroad, we need to inform them about the culture shock stages. Also, it would be better to advise them about how to deal with these difficulties in advance using detailed examples. In addition, it would be good to let them read some books about the study abroad program manuals.

As Jackson (2010) stated, their intercultural sensitivity competence or intercultural competencies can be taught just as the foreign language can before participants go abroad. What would be better, perhaps, is to let them write daily entries about what they are experiencing every day. In sum, opportunities to adapt what they have learned into a real context would help them eventually as teachers of the foreign language when they return home.

5.4.4. Policy Implications

These findings are important for foreign language teacher preparation course development. Lately, some individuals in the Ministry of Education have begun to think that the study abroad teacher training programs are not worthwhile, and they plan to reduce the budget for such programs by replacing them with domestic programs. In terms of the efficiency and effectiveness of time and funds, the effects of this program seemed

similar to the effects of domestic programs. However, what the participants learned, felt, and experienced were much more than what had been expected. As shown in Chapter 4, the study abroad group was able to become more aware of cultural and linguistic differences and seemed to improve their intercultural competence compared to their counterparts in domestic immersion programs. Learning a foreign language is not simply memorizing and doing pattern drills, but it should be situated and considered in the target culture. Therefore, policy makers should be aware of the underlying critical effects of study abroad programs and try to adapt these benefits when they plan domestic programs or future study abroad teacher training program.

5.5. Further research

This study also provides many ideas for further research. Clearly in the 21st century, more students are participating in study abroad programs. So far, many previous studies have been focused on the outcomes of studying abroad, and only a few have examined their after study abroad effects or after study abroad impact on participants' identity or language learning. In addition, only a few have investigated the host culture individuals or host culture instructors. To maximize the effects of a study abroad experience, mutual understanding of both host culture and foreign participants should be a priority. Therefore, an investigation of the host culture's experiences would be a good topic for further research.

Another future study can involve the experiences of EFL teachers going abroad. Lately, many EFL teachers are going abroad to teach English in Asian countries. Few studies have been conducted to investigate what they are experiencing and how they

overcome the culture shock when abroad. For example, many people from English-speaking countries are going abroad to teach English. They might be experiencing culture shock similar to the participants in my study. They might also be developing their intercultural competence, which is a very essential competence for foreign or second language teachers or instructors. Moreover, they might be experiencing the same kind of in-betweenness similar to what some of the participants in this study experienced. For enhancing the mutual understanding between two different cultures, research on the host culture and native English speaking teachers when abroad would be worthwhile to investigate.

In addition to the above research ideas, it would be invaluable to examine how the experiences of study abroad teacher training programs impact foreign language teachers' professional lives such as modifications of their teaching practices or the pursuit of other paths of their professional development or some degree of participation in domestic or international professional organizations. This is true because the impact of the study abroad experience could ideally be extended to the participants' professional lives (Allen, 2010). Therefore, future studies need to be conducted to investigate these impacts of study abroad teacher training experiences on teachers' professional lives with in-depth interviews and classroom observation about the teachers' teaching practice after the study abroad programs.

5.6. Conclusions

There is a saying "Send the boy that you love the best to travel." This means that if one really loves one's children, one should send them to travel and study abroad. They

will learn much more than from textbook. The participants in this study reported having many more experiences than anyone expected.

Study abroad has seemed to have many benefits for language learners even though to what extent they improved linguistically and interculturally has been difficult to capture by formal language proficiency tests. However, it seems to have much more benefits than expected if the participants are well-prepared before the study abroad experiences. If learners simply go abroad and stay with their same language groups always, their linguistic proficiency may not be guaranteed to improve. The participants in this study were all mature Korean teachers of English. Before this study abroad, they had learned English as a subject not as a language with which to communicate with people around them.

To learn a second or foreign language, studying abroad can be a good option, but it might be difficult for some students. Instead of sending students, sending foreign language teachers into target cultures may be a good choice if it is well-organized for their optimal learning of language and culture considering their target language proficiency and needs. Through this study, I came to realize how important it is to connect language learning with the target culture again. Simply learning language itself is similar to walking with one leg. In order to walk with two legs, language learning should be situated in the culture in which the language is used. Furthermore, this study emphasizes the importance of cultural competence that has been neglected for decades in English education in Korea. In this study, to the participants, everywhere they went was their classrooms. Everybody they met was their teacher. Whatever they experienced by seeing, listening, communicating, and feeling was what they had learned.

In this global age, studying abroad is not only important for Korea, but also for other countries for raising global leaders. Especially, the United States is one country that receives the most students from all over the world who come study abroad (President Obama, 2011). However, only a few studies have been conducted on what these international students experience when studying in the United States. From a sociocultural perspective, in a study abroad exchange, not only the participants but also the host country or community experience multiple benefits and can learn about “Others,” influencing each other reciprocally. I hope that even though this small scale study has limitations, it can contribute to further the research on study abroad and foreign language teacher education programs.

APPENDIX A

SELF-ASSESSMENT OF Foreign Language PROFICIENCY

Name or nick name: _____, (F / M)
 Age: 25-30, 30-35, 36-40, 41-45, 46-50, 51-55, 56-60
 The years of teaching experiences:
 Have you ever been to abroad? If so, Where? How long?

본 설문지의 목적은 연수에 참가하신 연수생 선생님들께서 자신의 외국어 능숙도를 해외 연수 전과 후의 결과에 대해 스스로 평가해 보는 것입니다. 본 자료는 연구 목적 외에 절대 사용 되지 않을 것입니다.

The following Self-Assessment is intended to guide those who have not taken an official foreign language proficiency test. **Please respond “yes” or “no.”**

To estimate your rating, start a Level 1 and see how many times you answered “yes.” If you answered “yes” to each statement in the level, move on to the next level. If you answered “no” to one or more statements, then you are not at that level.

If you answered “yes” to all the statements at a level, but at the next level you have a mixture of “yes” and “no” answers, then you may be at the plus level. For example, if you answered “yes” to all the statements at Level 1, but have a mixture of responses at Level 2, you may be at Level 1+ in speaking, provided that you had more “yes” answers than “no” at Level 2.

Self- Appraisal of Speaking Proficiency		Y es	N o
S-1	I can tell/ask someone how to get from here to a nearby hotel, restaurant, or post office.		
	I can order a simple meal.		
	I can arrange for a hotel room or taxi ride.		
	I can buy a needed item such as bus or train ticket, groceries, or clothing.		
	I can ask and answer simple questions about date and place of birth, nationality, marital status, occupation, etc.		
	I can make social introductions and use greeting and leave-taking expressions.		
S-2	I can handle conversations about familiar topics in an organized way.		
	I can produce speech with some organization on familiar, topics that extend beyond my daily routine.		
	I can describe my present or most recent job or activity in some detail.		
	I can give detailed information about my family, my house, and my house, and my community.		
	I can interview an employee, or arrange for special services (taking care of details such as salary, qualifications, hours, specific duties).		
	I can give a brief autobiography including immediate plans and hopes.		
	I feel confident that when I talk with native speakers on topics such as those mentioned above, they understand me most of the time.		
	I can take and give simple messages over the telephone, or leave a message on voice mail.		
	I can describe in detail a person or place that is very familiar to me.		
	I can report the facts of what I have seen recently on television news or read in the newspaper.		

	I can talk about a trip or some other everyday event that happened in the recent past or that will happen soon.		
S-3	I feel that I have a professional command, rather than just a practical one, of the language.		
	There are few grammatical features of the language that I try to avoid.		
	I rarely find myself unable to finish a sentence because of linguistic limitations (grammar or vocabulary).		
	I find it easy to follow and contribute to a conversation among native speakers.		
	I can speak to a group of educated native speakers on a professional subject and be sure I am communicating what I want to, without obviously irritating them linguistically.		
	I can, on a social occasion, defend personal opinions about social and cultural topics.		
	I can cope with difficult situations such as broken-down plumbing, an undeserved traffic ticket, or a serious social or diplomatic blunder made by a colleague or me.		
	I can use the language to speculate at length about abstract topics such as how some change in history or the course of human events would have affected my life or civilization.		
	In professional discussions, my vocabulary is extensive and precise enough to enable me to convey my exact meaning.		
	I am able to adjust my speech to suit my audience, whether I am talking to university professors, close friends, employees, or others.		
S-4	I consistently use the language in a sophisticated and nuanced way to effectively communicate with great precision.		
	I practically never make a grammatical mistake.		
	I can carry out any job assignment as effectively as if in my native language.		
	I can persuade someone effectively to take a course of action in a sensitive situation such as to improve his/her health, reverse a decision or establish a policy.		
	I can prepare and give a lecture at a professional meeting about my area of specialization and debate complex aspects with others.		
	I naturally integrate appropriate cultural and historical references in my speech.		
	I can eloquently represent a point of view other than my own.		
	I can lead the direction of the discussion (friendly, controversial, collaborative).		
S-5	My language proficiency is functionally equivalent to that of a highly articulate well-educated native speaker and reflects the cultural standards of a country where the language is natively spoken.		
	I can use the language with complete flexibility and intuition, so that speech on all levels is fully accepted by well-educated native speakers in all of its features, including breadth of and idiom, colloquialisms, and pertinent cultural references.		
	My pronunciation is typically consistent with that of well-educated, highly		

	articulate native speakers of a standard dialect.		
	My vocabulary is extensive and precise, allowing me to consistently convey complex ideas and details.		

Self- assessment in Speaking : _____

SELF-ASSESSMENT OF LISTENING PROFICIENCY		Y	N
		es	o
L1	In everyday conversation with people speaking the standard dialect, I can understand speech that is slow and clear.		
	I can understand basic directions and instructions, such as how to get to a local store.		
	I can understand questions and answers about basic survival needs, such as meals, lodging, transportation and time.		
	I can understand routine questions about my job, my immediate family and myself.		
	I can understand simple statements about a person's background and occupation.		
	If I cannot understand what a speaker tells me, I can understand the statement after it has been repeated or rephrased slowly and clearly.		
L2	When people are speaking the standard dialect at a normal rate, I can understand their speech when it is spoken with some repetition and rephrasing, can understand speech about everyday topics, for example common personal and family news, well-known current events, and routine situations at work.		
	I can understand spoken descriptions of different places, for instance the geography of a country or location that is familiar.		
	I can understand uncomplicated stories about current, past and future events.		
	I can understand at least some details from announcements made over a loudspeaker.		
	I can usually understand the main idea and basic facts from a short news report on the radio or television.		
L3	I can accurately follow all conversations among native speakers who are speaking at a normal rate of speech.		
	I can understand discussions of ideas and concepts, including proposals and speculation.		
	I rarely, if ever, have to ask speakers to paraphrase or explain what they have said.		
	I can correctly infer meanings that are not directly stated.		
	I can understand someone's opinion and the points used to support the opinion.		
	I can often, if not always, detect the attitudes and feelings of a speaker.		
L4	I can understand speech in a professional setting concerning my field of expertise or some technical subjects, such as a lecture or a panel discussion.		
	I can understand almost all forms and styles of speech pertinent to professional needs.		

	I can fully understand all speech that involves the use of extensive and precise vocabulary, including subtle distinctions between word choices.		
	I can follow arguments with unpredictable presentation, for example, in informal and formal speeches covering editorial and literary material.		
	I can understand language adjusted for different audiences and for different purposes.		
	I can readily and accurately infer meanings and implications.		
	I am able to understand the main ideas of speech in some non-standard dialects.		
	I can fully understand spoken interactions among native speakers at public gatherings, such as meetings, seminars, task groups or conferences.		
	I can fully understand a speech, oral report or briefing given to a group of native speakers concerning any topic directed to a general audience.		
L5	My comprehension is fully equivalent to that of a well-educated native listener.		
	I can fully understand all forms and styles of speech.		
	This includes slang, jokes and puns. I can understand speech even when it is distorted by other noise.		
	I can fully understand regional dialects, highly colloquial and idiomatic language.		

Self-assessment in Listening : _____

Self- Assessment of Reading Proficiency		Y	N
		es	o
R 1	As appropriate for the language, I can recognize and identify all the letters in the printed version of an alphabetic writing system		
	I can read some isolated words and phrases, such as numbers and commonplace names, that I see on signs, menus, and storefronts, and in simple everyday material such as advertisements and timetables.		
R-2	I can understand the purpose and main meaning of very short, simple texts, such as in printed personal notes, business advertisements, public announcements, maps, etc.		
	I can understand simple instructions, such as in very straightforward street directions.		
	I can understand very short simple written descriptions of some familiar persons, places, and things, like those found in many tourist pamphlets.		
R 3	I can understand texts that consist mainly of straightforward factual language, such as short news reports of events, biographical information, descriptions, or simple technical material.		
	I can understand the main idea and some details of clearly organized short straightforward texts about places, people, and events that I am familiar with.		
	I can understand very straightforward reports about current and past events.		
	I can understand simple typed correspondence in familiar contexts, including descriptions of events, feelings, wishes and future plans.		

	I can usually understand the main ideas of authentic prose on topics I am familiar with, either because they pertain to my work experience or to topics I am interested in.		
R 4	I can usually read and understand all of the material in a major daily newspaper published in a city or country with which I am familiar.		
	In reading a newspaper or magazine that contains editorial or opinion content, I can “read between the lines” and understand meanings that are not directly stated.		
	I can understand the author’s intent and follow the line of reasoning in texts that include hypothesis, persuasion, supported opinion or argument for a position (e.g., editorials, debates, and op-ed pieces) with little or no use of a dictionary.		
	I can understand contemporary expository essays and recent literary prose with little or no use of a dictionary.		
	I can understand the main ideas and important details of almost all material written within my particular professional field or area of primary interest (e.g., reports, analyses, letters, arguments, etc.).		
R 5	I am able to read fluently and accurately all styles and forms of the language pertinent to professional needs or personal interest without reference to a dictionary,.		
	I can understand long and complex analyses, factual reports, and literary texts.		
	I can understand both the meaning and the intent of most uses of idioms, cultural references, word play, sarcasm, and irony in even highly abstract and culturally “loaded” texts.		
	I can understand language that has been especially adjusted for different situations, audiences or purposes, such as a political essay, humorous anecdote or joke, sermon, or inflammatory broadside, and I can appreciate distinctions in style.		
	I can read virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, linguistically complex texts such as specialized articles, essays and literary works, including prose works from earlier periods recognized as masterpieces.		
	I can read reasonably legible handwriting without difficulty.		

Self- assessment in reading : _____

Appendix B Interview Questionnaire

First week interview questions:

1. Briefly introduce yourself (your major, your family, hobbies, age , future plans)
2. Why did you apply for this study abroad program? What were your purposes or goals?
3. What did you hope to gain from the program before leaving Korea?
4. What were your expectations for what the study abroad program would encompass before leaving Korea?
5. What have you done to prepare for this SA program?
6. What were your first impressions of UT or the U.S.?
7. Can you describe what you like most about the U.S. or U.T. broadly, or culturally?

Last week interview questions:

8. What do you do between classes, after class, or during weekends?
9. While here in the program, how many minutes or hours do you spend per day in interaction with native speakers?
10. What has been the most difficult while abroad ? (e.g., food; Homesickness; Cultural shock; demanding courses; language difficulties)
11. Can you describe what you have liked most about the U.S. or U.T. broadly, or culturally?
12. Can you describe that you have liked the least about the U.S. or living and studying abroad?
13. To get over the difficulties you've faced here, what did you do?

SAMPLE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS about Culture

1. Do you think you went through a culture shock during your stay in study abroad ?
2. What aspects of a culture shock did you experience?
3. How did you deal with the culture shock?

4. Can you describe the most memorable cultural experience of the trip?
5. Do you think you got a better understanding of the foreign (target) culture at the end of your stay?
6. Did you become more accepting of the foreign (target) culture at the end of your stay?

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